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THE

MODERN PART

OF AN

Universal History,

FROM THE

Earlieſt Accounts to the Preſent Time.

Compiled from

ORIGINAL AUTHORS.

By the AUTHORS of the ANCIENT PART.

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THE

CONCLUSION

OF THE

MODERN PART

OF

Universal History.

CHAP. IV.

Of AMERICA.

SECT. I.

Of America in general.

Discovery, extent, boundaries, &c of America.

AMONG the discoveries mentioned in history, whether owing to accident or reflection, that of America is not the least advantageous. This quarter of the world was for many ages unknown to the Europeans. At length the happy æra arrived, when industry, spirited up by resolution, was to remove all the difficulties exaggerated by ignorance.

It is so called from Americus Vespucio, a Florentine by birth, who, in 1497, was sent to improve the discoveries made by Columbus. The prodigious magnitude of this continent, the multitude and extent of its provinces, the variety of its climates, products, and curious particulars; and lastly, the distance and difficulty of one part communicating with another, and especially with Europe, have

been the cause, that America, though discovered and inhabited in its principal parts by Europeans, is still but imperfectly known by them in many things, which would greatly contribute to give a more perfect idea of so considerable a part of our globe. What has hitherto been discovered reaches from latitude 78 degrees north, to latitude 56 degrees south; that is, 134 degrees, which, taken in a strait line, amount to upwards of eight thousand and forty miles in length. With regard to breadth, it is very irregular, being in some places three thousand six hundred and ninety miles, and in others, not above sixty or seventy miles over. The boundaries ascribed to it are, the lands about the pole, on the north; the Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from Europe and Africa, on the east; another vast ocean, on the south; and the Pacific Ocean, usually called the South Sea, which divides it from Asia, on the west.

This vast country was not discovered till the year 1492, when the enterprizing genius of Columbus drew aside the veil of ignorance, and shewed it to the surprised inhabitants of the old world. The honour, however, of this great discovery has been claimed by almost all the maritime nations of Europe. The Spaniards tell us, that Columbus received his lights from the papers of captain Aldres, their countryman, who had been cast on the coasts; and the French say he had them from Betincourt, who first discovered the Azores. It would be a difficult matter to determine this contest; but it appears, that our claim to the discovery of this new world is prior to that of the Spaniards, whose pretensions seem to be the best grounded: no one can dispute the authenticity of those vouchers, whereby it appears that Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, a man no less enterprising, or less skilled in navigation, than Columbus himself, was sent by our Henry VII. a year before the discovery of Columbus; and, having first discovered Newfoundland, sailed along the coast as far as Florida. We must not omit, that the Welsh claim a more ancient discovery than any yet produced; asserting, that prince Madoc, son of Owen Guineth, was cast on the coast of Florida as early as 1170, or 1190. Though indeed some look on this relation as fabulous, it has a great many corroborating circumstances, that make it appear not improbable; for Meredith ap Rheise, who gives us the account, was prior to Columbus, and died in the year 1477, which is fifteen years before Columbus began his expedition. To this we may add, the affinity between the language of the Welsh and of some of the settlements in those parts; which receives

ceives ſome weight from the evidence of Mr. Davis, who tells us, he met with a whole ſettlement that ſpoke the Welſh language in its utmoſt purity; and from the tradition of ſome of the inhabitants, who aſſert, that their anceſtors came from a country beyond the great waters, nearly about the ſame time, from the ſame point of the compaſs, or from the riſing of the ſun.

Conjectures on the original of the Eſkimaux.

This may ſeem, in ſome meaſure, to account for the Eſkimaux, the only people in the vaſt continent of America that differ from the reſt of the original inhabitants. They live in the north part of America, in a country called Labrador, but whether they reſide conſtantly there, or not, is uncertain. They make excurſions as far as the ſea coaſts of Newfoundland; and have been ſeen near Nelſon's River, that falls into the weſt ſide of Hudſon's Bay. They deſerve the name of ſavages better than any people yet known; for they eat raw fleſh, and have a thick beard that covers their faces up to their eyes, inſomuch, that their features can hardly be perceived. Their hair is generally black and rugged; their eyes little and wild, and their whole external appearance frightful and ugly. Their character and manners are quite agreeable to their hideous appearance; for they are wild, fierce, diſtruſtful, and always ready to do miſchief to ſtrangers. Their ſtature is rather tall than otherwiſe, and they have a pretty good ſhape; but their large beards and plenty of hair, the whiteneſs of their ſkin, their always going clothed, and their having no reſemblance of their next neighbours, leave no room to doubt that they proceed from a ſtock different from the reſt of the Americans: ſtill their language, having no reſemblance, as it is thought, to any we know of, muſt make us ſeek a different original for them from the Welſh; for it may be well preſumed, that though the Welſh dialect is uncommon, and little known out of Wales, yet ſome of our ſeamen, or the Bretons among the French, by their intercourſe with this people, muſt have diſcovered the analogy of their language long before now, if there was any.

Similarity of all the native Americans.

However, it is very remarkable that all the native Americans are nearly alike, except the juſt-mentioned Eſkimaux; for they have all coarſe black hair, and are without beards, or hair on any part of their bodies.

The Americans in all the European plantations are very well known, and yet it might be doubted, whether thoſe in the ſouthernmoſt parts of America are like the other inhabitants; eſpecially as ſome ſeamen have repreſented thoſe near the ſtraits of Magellan as giants, that is, nine or

ten feet high. It appears there are ſuch, but not ſo tall, in a part called Patagonia, from the relation of admiral Byron; but as to the inhabitants in general, we have been undeceived in this particular by ſir John Narborough, who informs us, that both men and women are of a middle ſtature, and well proportioned, with roundiſh faces, and low foreheads. Their eyes are black, and their noſes of a middle ſize; their teeth are very white, and cloſe ſet; but their ears are ſmall. Their hair is black, coarſe, and ſhaggy, and both men and women wear it of the ſame length. They are full-breaſted, and their complexion is of an olive tawny, or rather red. They greaſe their bodies, and their faces are daubed with ſpots down their cheeks that are both white and black, without any method. They have ſmall heads, and ſhort fingers; and they are active and nimble in all their motions; their cloaths are made up with pieces of the ſkins of ſeals, guanacoes, and otters, ſewed together, and are in the form of carpets, about five feet ſquare. They wrap them about their bodies as the Scots do their plaids; and they have alſo caps made of the ſkins of fowls, with the feathers on. Inſtead of ſhoes, they have pieces of ſkin tied on their feet. They are a very hardy people, and ſeldom wear their garment when they are ſtirring about; but were quite naked from head to foot when he ſaw them, which was at a time when the hills were covered with ſnow. They have no hair on their bodies or faces, nor any thing to cover their private parts; only ſome of the women had a piece of ſkin before them. The garments of both ſexes are the ſame, except that the women had bracelets of ſhells about their necks. The men are of a larger ſize than the women, and their faces more full. The ſpeech of the men is very harſh, and when they talk there is a rattling in their throat; but that of the women is ſhriller and lower. They live upon what they get, and they are under no government; neither have they the leaſt ſign of religion. The men have always bows that are ready ſtrung, which are about an ell long, and their arrows about eighteen inches: theſe are headed at one end with flint, and at the other there are two feathers tied on with the twiſted gut of a beaſt. They have very large mungrel dogs, of ſeveral colours, beſides which they have no domeſtic animal.

M. Bouguer, who went into South America to meaſure a degree of the earth, ſays, that the Americans of Peru, who live in woods, form a kind of little republic, under the direction of a Spaniſh prieſt, and have a governor, with his officers, of their own nation. They want vivacity, and

and are addicted to idleneſs; but they live in great harmony with each other, without the leaſt diſtruſt. The doors of their huts are always open, though they have cotton, calibaſhes, and a ſort of aloes of which they make thread, beſides a few commodities they trade with. They go almoſt naked, and paint their bodies and faces with red ſtripes. They are of all trades; for they build their own houſes, make their own canoes, and weave their own cloth. They live upon the fruits of the earth, hunting, and fiſhing; by which they always get ſufficient to maintain their families. There are other Peruvians called warriors, who have not yet been brought under ſubjection; but they ſeem to have the ſame manners and cuſtoms. The colour of theſe Americans is that of red copper, which is more or leſs dark in proportion to their being more or leſs expoſed to the weather. They have no beard, nor hair on their breaſts, nor any other part of their bodies; but have long, coarſe, ſtrait, black hair on their heads.

The Americans, near Virginia, according to thoſe who have lived among them, are of a middle ſtature, and are ſtrait and well proportioned, with the fineſt limbs in the world; nor is there a dwarf, or miſhapen perſon, among them. Their colour is cheſnut, or rather of red copper, rendered darker by their greaſing themſelves, and being expoſed to the weather. They have black eyes, and their hair is coal-black, which the men cut into ſeveral ſhapes; both men and women always greaſe it, which cauſes it to ſhine. The better ſort wear a ſort of coronet on their heads, four or five inches broad, and open at top. It is compoſed of a ſort of beads; but ſometimes they wear a wreath of dyed furs: they have alſo bracelets on their necks and arms; but the common people go bare-headed, only they ſtick large ſhining feathers in their hair. Their cloaths are a large mantle, careleſsly wrapped round their bodies, and ſometimes girt cloſe with a girdle. The common ſort only tie a ſtring round their middles, and paſs a piece of cloth or ſkin between their thighs, which they turn over the ſtring at each end. Their ſhoes, when they wear any, are made of an entire piece of buck-ſkin. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only the better ſort have more beads and bracelets. They commonly go naked as far as their navel downwards, and upwards to the middle of the thigh; their breaſts are round and ſmall, and never hang down, as thoſe of the black women do on the coaſts of Guinea. Inſtead of keeping their children warm, they dip them over head and ears in cold water, and afterwards tie

them to a board, covered with ſomewhat that is ſoft; and there is a hole therein, through which they evacuate their excrements. They keep them ſeveral months in this poſture, till the limbs begin to grow ſtrong; when they ſuffer the child to crawl about as well as it can.

Lawſon informs us, that the Americans of North Carolina are a well ſhaped clean-made people, of different ſtatures, like the Europeans; but moſt of them are rather tall than otherwiſe. They are very ſtrait, and their limbs are exceedingly well made; particularly their legs and feet, which are the handſomeſt in the world. Their eyes are black or of a dark hazel, and the white is marbled with red ſtreaks. Their colour is tawny, which becomes ſo by daubing themſelves with bears greaſe, for otherwiſe it is reddiſh. They are never bald, which may perhaps be owing to their greaſing their hair. When they intend to be fine, they mix red paint with the bears greaſe, which they ſell at a great price to one another. He never ſaw a dwarf among them, nor but one that was hump-backed; but the teeth of both ſexes are yellow, which is owing to their ſmoaking tobacco. They have no beard, nor hair under their arm-pits, nor yet on any other part of their bodies. They let their nails grow very long, and laugh at the Europeans for paring theirs. The bark they make their huts with, is generally that of the cypreſs-tree, or red or white cedar. They ſet poles in the ground as thick as the ſmall of a man's leg, with the bark ſtripped off, about two yards aſunder in a circular form, for their huts are always round; then they bring the tops together, and bind them with the bark of trees. The women's dreſs in very ſevere weather is a hairy watch-coat, like a plaid, to keep out the cold; but at other times they have only an apron half a yard deep. The dreſs of the men is the ſame as in Virginia, and the management of the children is the ſame.

On the iſthmus of Darien the Americans are generally between five and ſix feet high, according to Wafer; and they are ſtrait, clean-limbed, big-boned, full-breaſted, and well ſhaped. They are very nimble and active; but the women are ſhort and thick, and not ſo lively as the men; however, thoſe that are young are very plump, well ſhaped, and have a briſk eye; but when they grow old they are very ordinary, and have hanging breaſts. Both ſexes are round viſaged, with ſhort bottle-noſes, and large ſparkling eyes. Their teeth are white and even, their lips are thin, and their mouth moderately large; but in general their features are pretty handſome. Both ſexes have ſtrait, long, black,

black, lank, coarſe, and ſtrong hair, which generally hangs down to the middle of the back, only the women tie theirs together juſt behind the head. Their natural complexion is a copper colour, or orange tawny, and the eye-brows are naturally as black as jet. They anoint themſelves all over with oil, to render their ſkins ſmooth, ſleek, and ſupple; and it preſerves their ſkins from being parched, as it otherwiſe would be in this hot climate. Both men and women paint their bodies, and ſometimes ſucking children, with the figures of men, beaſts, birds, trees, and the like. The women are the painters, and their chief colours are red, yellow, and blue, which are very bright. Some print theſe figures in the ſkin after they are drawn, by pricking them with a ſharp thorn till the blood guſhes out; then they rub in the colour they deſign, after which it never comes out. They wear no cloaths; the women only have an apron, that is tied before and behind by a ſtring round their middles; ſometimes theſe hang down before as far as their knees, if they can get one large enough. The men go quite naked, but have ornaments on their faces, which is a piece of ſilver plate hanging over their mouths; but the principal men have theirs of gold. It is in the ſhape of a half moon, that pinches the bridle of the noſe with its points. The women have rings in the griſtles of their noſes, which hang over their mouths; but theſe in both ſexes are chiefly worn on ſome public occaſions; and they always take them off at meals. Beſides theſe, the men, women, and children, wear ſtrings or chains of teeth, ſhells, beads, and the like, which hang down from the neck upon the breaſt. She muſt be a poor woman who has not fifteen or twenty pounds weight of theſe ſtrings; but they do not wear them when they are in their houſes. The women take care of the plantations, and the men build the houſes or huts, and go a hunting; both play their parts with great alacrity. When a woman is brought to bed, another takes her and the child on her back, down to the river and waſhes them therein. The child for the firſt month is tied upon a board, as in Virginia and Carolina. The men have ſeveral wives, which are generally diſpoſed in different parts, ſo that they always find one when they go a hunting.

The Californians are the leaſt known to the Europeans of any in this part of the world. Thoſe of Puerto Seguro in that country, who were ſeen by the captains Rogers and Cook, had long black hair, and dark ſkins, made ſo by daubing them with greaſe; for, according to ſome accounts, they would otherwiſe be reddiſh. The men go quite naked,

only they wrap or tie round their heads a piece of linen, or a kind of network. They wear about their necks, and ſometimes on their hands by way of ornament, various figures in mother-of-pearl, intermixed with ſmall round fruits like beads. Their weapons are bows and arrows, or javelins, which they carry always in their hands for hunting, or defending themſelves againſt their enemies; for wars are frequent among them. The dreſs of the women is ſomewhat more modeſt than that of the men, for they wear from the waiſt to the knee, a ſort of apron made with reeds plaited like mats. They cover their ſhoulders with ſkins of beaſts, and have network on their heads like the men. They have alſo necklaces of mother-of-pearl, intermixed with ſtones or kernels of fruit and ſea-ſhells, which hang down to their waiſt. They are a very lively people, and are fond of joking; but do not ſeem to have any form of government, nor yet do they ſhew any ſign of religion.

Great probability of America being firſt peopled from the north-eaſt of Aſia.

If we compare this deſcription of the Americans with what is recorded of ſome late diſcoveries made by the Ruſſians, in regard to the inhabitants of Kamtſchatka and the neighbouring parts, we ſhall have good reaſon to believe that America was firſt peopled from the north-eaſt of Aſia: for, though it now ſeems to be certain, that there is an open ſea between the two continents, yet it is towards the north ſo narrow, that it may be eaſily paſſed in the canoes or boats made uſe of by the people on both ſides, eſpecially the ſtraits between the Tchukotſchi-noſs, or cape, and the continent of America; and, if any credit can be given to the people who live upon that cape, there is an iſland lies oppoſite to, and within ſight of the cape, to which they may, in half a day, paſs over in their boats; and from that iſland may be ſeen in a clear day, a large continent to the eaſtward, which is full of people, who, in every particular, reſemble the Tchukotſchi themſelves; but this continent, they ſay, is a much better country than their own, as it has large foreſts of fir, pine, larch, and cedar-trees, and great rivers running from the eaſt, and falling into the ſea upon the weſt ſide of it.

It is therefore highly probable, that, many ages ſince, ſome people have paſſed over from the north-eaſt of Aſia to the oppoſite coaſt of America, and finding that country more fruitful and better provided with game of all ſorts than their own, it is natural to ſuppoſe that they would ſettle there; for hunting and fiſhing were the only methods they had been accuſtomed to, of procuring themſelves either food or raiment: even to this day the people upon

the north-eaſt coaſt of Aſia, never thinking of ſowing or reaping; and the character of being provident no ways belongs to any of the natives we know of in America. The north-weſt coaſt of America having been thus provided with a few inhabitants, it is alſo natural to ſuppoſe, that their poſterity would from thence, by degrees, ſpread to the ſouthward, and at laſt, over the whole continent of America. This conjecture is ſtrongly confirmed by two very remarkable circumſtances: we know, as above obſerved, that the natives of America have no beards: the caſe is the very ſame with regard to all the natives inhabiting the north-eaſt continent of Aſia. Another circumſtance is the total ignorance of that deſtructive as well as uſeful metal called iron or ſteel. The natives of America had found out the method of refining gold and ſilver, and of making ſeveral little trinkets of thoſe metals; but they knew nothing of iron and ſteel when the Europeans came firſt among them, nor had they any weapons or inſtruments of that metal: the Ruſſians tell us the ſame of the Kamtſchatdales, and the neighbouring nations upon the north-eaſt coaſt of Aſia. They might, perhaps, have ſeen ſome iron or ſteel arms or inſtruments among the Japaneſe, who happened to be ſhip-wrecked upon their coaſts, but they knew nothing of the metal itſelf, until the Ruſſians came amongſt them; and for this reaſon, the arrows, ſpears, and other weapons, they made uſe of in their wars, were pointed only with ſharp flints, or fiſh-bones.

Theſe, we know, were the only ſort of arms the Americans had, when the Spaniards firſt arrived in their country; and, as theſe two people reſemble one another originally in their arms, ſo they likewiſe ſtill reſemble one another in their conduct in war. The north-eaſtern Aſiatics carry on their wars more by ſtratagem than bravery, as they never will openly attack their enemies, unleſs forced to it by neceſſity; and the male priſoners they take, eſpecially if they are men of conſequence, are treated with all manner of barbarity, ſuch as burning, hewing them to pieces, tearing their bowels out whilſt alive, and hanging them up by their feet till they expire; but it is not ſaid, that ſcalping has as yet been introduced among them, probably, becauſe they are not yet generally provided with ſharp knives; nor was this cruel cuſtom introduced among the Americans till the Europeans provided them with inſtruments proper for the purpoſe, and promiſed them a reward for every ſcalp; but with regard to their male priſoners, they are ſtill equally cruel with thoſe we may now call their anceſtors of Aſia, and carry on all their

wars more by ſtratagem, ambuſcade, or ſurprize, than by bravery.

With regard to the form of government among the people in the north-eaſtern parts of Aſia, we are told, that before the Ruſſian conqueſt, they lived in perfect freedom, having no chief, being ſubject to no law, nor paying any taxes; the old men, or thoſe who were remarkable for their bravery, bearing the principal authority in their villages, though none had any right to command or inflict puniſhment; and they were ſo ignorant of numbers, that none could count above one hundred, very few above twenty, and even that, not without the help of their toes and fingers. Are not the people in moſt parts of America ſtill in the very ſame ſituation, both with reſpect to government and numbers? But it would be endleſs to take notice of every correſpondence that may be obſerved in the manners and condition of theſe two people; and if we conſider that, for ſo many ages, there has never been any intercourſe between the anceſtors in Aſia and their poſterity in America, we muſt be ſurpriſed to find that they ſtill agree in ſo many particulars; eſpecially, if at the ſame time we conſider the vaſt difference that is known to be between the climate and the fertility of the two countries, and the many ages that muſt have paſſed over, before a few ſtragglers from the northernmoſt parts of Aſia, could have filled the whole continent and iſlands of America ſo full of people, as they were found to be when the Spaniards firſt arrived there.

But that this could not require a very great number of ages muſt be granted, if we ſuppoſe, that they had not for ages any wars among themſelves, nor any intoxicating liquors; both of which are highly probable: they could have no wars, becauſe they had room enough to extend themſelves on all ſides, without driving others out of the parts they were poſſeſſed of; and, by the dark accounts we have of the empires of Mexico and Peru, it ſeems that they extended themſelves faſter, and in greater numbers, towards the ſouth, and along the weſtern coaſts of America, than they ever did towards the eaſt of that continent; which is a farther proof that the weſtern coaſts of America were the firſt that were peopled. Then, as to intoxicating liquors, even to this day, they know nothing of ſuch liquors in thoſe parts of America which have not had the misfortune to be viſited by any Europeans, as ſeems probable from the account of captain Bering's voyage from Kamtſchatka to the weſtern coaſts of America, for at Schumagin's iſlands, upon that coaſt, his people preſented a glaſs of brandy

brandy to an Indian who came on board their boat, which he tasted, but immediately spit it out again, and was so much affronted, they he would not accept of any of the presents they offered him; which is a proof that they had never before tasted any such liquors.

From all which, we have reason to conclude, that the natives of America were all, without exception, originally descended from the people of the north-eastern coast of Asia; for even as to the Eskimaux, (if they were not of a Welsh original, as it is very probable they are not,) we know so little of them, that we cannot positively say, whether or no they had any beards, or any knowlege of iron, when we first began to visit that coast: if they had, it is probable they came originally from Norway, or Iceland, to Greenland, and from thence to Labrador, after the rest of America had been peopled, which prevented their spreading themselves to the southward; and this, consequently, is an argument for, rather than against what has been said, with respect to the origin of the rest of the people of America.

What the products and other particulars are of America, will appear by the following account.

SECT. II.

Of South-America.

IN this division of America, we shall begin with the Terra Firma, and proceed in order to the other countries contained in it.

Terra Firma, otherwise called Castilla del Oro, is bounded by the North Sea, (part of the Atlantic Ocean,) on the north; by the same sea and Guiana, on the east; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean and Veragua, on the west. It lies between 62 and 83 deg. of western longitude, and between the equator and 12 deg. of north latitude, being upwards of one thousand two hundred miles in length from east to west, and eight hundred miles in breadth from north to south. Terra Firma Proper, which is more known by the name of Darien, lies between 8 and 10 deg. of north latitude, and between 78 and 83 deg. of west longitude, in the form of a crescent, about that spacious bay of Panama; and is three hundred miles in length, and sixty miles in breadth from the North to the South-Sea; this being the isthmus which joins North and *Terra Firma.*

South America. The north diviſion contains the provinces of, 1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien; the chief towns, Porto Bello and Panama. 2. Carthagena; 3. St. Martha; 4. Rio de la Hacha; 5. Venezuela; 6. Comana; the chief towns of which are of the ſame name: and, 7. New Andaluſia, or Paria; the chief town St. Thomas. The ſouth diviſion contains the provinces of, 1. New Granada, the chief town Sante Fe de Bagota; 2. Popayan, the chief town of the ſame name.

Porto Bello. The town of St. Philip de Porto Bello ſtands in 9 deg. 34 min. 35 ſec. north latitude, and in the longitude of 296 deg. 41 min. from the Pico of Teneriffe. This harbour was diſcovered on the 2d of November, 1502, by Chriſtopher Columbus, who was ſo charmed with its extent, depth, and ſecurity, that he gave it the name of Porto Bello, or the Fine Harbour. The town ſtands near the ſea, on the declivity of a mountain, which ſurrounds the whole harbour, and conſiſts of one principal ſtreet, extending along the ſtrand, with others ſmaller croſſing it, and running from the declivity of the mountain to the ſhore, together with ſome lanes, in the ſame direction with the principal ſtreet, where the ground admits of it. Here are two large ſquares; one oppoſite to the cuſtom-houſe, which is a ſtructure of ſtone, contiguous to the quay; the other faces the great church, which is alſo of ſtone, large, and decently ornamented, conſidering the ſmallneſs of the place: moſt of the houſes are built of wood. In ſome, the firſt ſtory is of ſtone, and the remainder of wood. They are about one hundred and thirty-three in number, but moſt of them large and ſpacious. The town is under the juriſdiction of a governor, with the title of lieutenant-general, as being ſuch under the preſident of Panama; and the term of his poſt is without any ſpecified limitation. He is always a gentleman of the army, having under him the commandants of the forts that defend the harbour, and whoſe employments are for life.

At the eaſt end of the town, which is the road to Panama, is a quarter called Guinea, being the place where all the Negroes of both ſexes, whether ſlaves or free, have their habitations. This quarter is very much crowded when the galleons are here, moſt of the inhabitants of the town quitting entirely their houſes for the advantage of letting them, while others content themſelves with a ſmall part, in order to make money of the reſt. The mulattoes, and other poor families, alſo remove either to Guinea, or to cottages already erected near it, or built on this occaſion. Great numbers of artificers from Panama likewiſe, who flock to

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Porto Bello to work at their reſpective callings, lodge in this quarter for cheapneſs. Towards the ſea, in a large tract between the town and Gloria Caſtle, barracks are alſo erected, and principally filled with the ſhips crews; who keep ſtalls of ſweetmeats, and other kinds of eatables brought from Spain; but, at the concluſion of the fair, the ſhips put to ſea, and all theſe buildings are taken down, and the town returns to its former tranquillity and emptineſs.

The name of this port indicates its being commodious for all ſorts of ſhips or veſſels whether great or ſmall; and though its entrance is very wide, it is well defended by fort St. Philip de Todo Fierro. It ſtands on the north point of the entrance, which is about ſix hundred toiſes broad, that is, a little leſs than a fourth part of a league; and the ſouth ſide, being full of riſes of rocks, extending to ſome diſtance from the ſhore, a ſhip is obliged to ſtand to the north, though the deepeſt part of the channel is in the middle of the entrance, and thus continues in a ſtrait direction, having nine, ten, or fifteen fathom water, and a bottom of clayey mud, mixed with chalk and ſand. On the ſouth ſide of the harbour, and oppoſite to the anchoring-place, is a large caſtle, called St. Jago de la Gloria, to the eaſt of which, at the diſtance of about one hundred toiſes, begins the town, having before it a point of land projecting into the harbour. On this point ſtood a ſmall fort called St. Jerom, within ten toiſes of the houſes. All theſe were demoliſhed by admiral Vernon, who, in 1739, with ſix ſhips only, made himſelf maſter of this port. The Spaniards ſay it was unprovided with every thing, the greateſt part of the artillery, eſpecially that of the caſtle de Todo Fierro, or *Iron-caſtle*, being diſmounted for want of carriages, part of the few military ſtores unſerviceable, and the garriſon ſhort of its compliment.

North-eaſt of the town is the mouth of a river called Caſcajal, which affords no freſh water within a quarter of a league or upwards from its mouth; and it is not uncommon to ſee in it caymanes or alligators.

Among the mountains which ſurround the whole harbour of Porto Bello, one is particularly remarkable for its ſuperior loftineſs, as if deſigned to be the barometer of the country, by foretelling every change of weather. This mountain, diſtinguiſhed by the name of Capiro, ſtands at the utmoſt extremity of the harbour, in the road to Panama. Its top is always covered with clouds of a denſity and darkneſs ſeldom ſeen in thoſe of this atmoſphere. When theſe clouds thicken, increaſe their blackneſs, and

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ſink below their uſual ſtation, it is a ſure ſign of a tempeſt; while, on the other hand, their clearneſs and aſcent as certainly indicate the approach of fair weather. It muſt, however, be remembered, that theſe changes are very frequent, and very ſubitaneous. It is alſo ſeldom that the ſummit is ever obſerved clear from clouds, and, when this happens, it is only, as it were, for an inſtant.

The juriſdiction of the lieutenant-general governor of Porto Bello, is limited to the town and the forts; the neighbouring country, over which it might be extended, being full of mountains, covered with impenetrable foreſts, except a few vallies, in which are thinly ſcattered ſome farms, the nature of the country not admitting of any farther improvements.

The inclemency of the climate of Porto Bello is ſufficiently known; not only ſtrangers who come thither are affected by it, but even the natives themſelves ſuffer in various manners; it deſtroys the vigour of nature, and often untimely cuts the thread of life. It is a current opinion that formerly, and even not above fifty years ſince parturition was here ſo dangerous, that it was ſeldom any woman did not die in child-bed. Another opinion equally ſtrange is, that the animals from other climates, on their being brought to Porto Bello, ceaſe to procreate, and in a ſhort time loſe their fleſh, though they do not want plenty of good paſture. The heat is exceſſive, being augmented by the ſituation of the town, which is ſurrounded with high mountains, without any interval for the winds, whereby it might be refreſhed; and the copious exhalations, which form large clouds, and precipitate in violent torrents of rain, are accompanied with ſuch tempeſts of thunder and lightning, as muſt daunt even the moſt reſolute; this dreadful noiſe being prolonged by repercuſſions from the caverns of the mountains, like the exploſion of cannon, the rumbling of which is heard for a minute after. To this alſo may be added, the howlings and ſhrieks of the multitudes of monkeys of all kinds, which live in the foreſts of the mountains, and which are never louder than when a man of war fires her morning and evening gun, though they are ſo much uſed to it.

Freſh water pours down in ſtreams from the mountains, ſome running without the town, and others croſſing it. Theſe waters are very light and digeſtive; qualities, which in other countries might be very valuable, but are here pernicious: for, doubtleſs, this water is too fine and active

for

for the ſtomachs of the inhabitants, and thus produces dyſenteries, the laſt ſtage of all other diſtempers, and which the patient very ſeldom ſurvives. However, thoſe rivulets, formed into reſervoirs, ſerve the purpoſes of bathing, which is here found to be very conducive to health.

As the foreſts almoſt border on the houſes of the town, tygers often make incurſions into the ſtreets during the night, carrying off fowls, dogs, and other domeſtic creatures; and ſometimes even boys have fallen a prey to them. Beſides the ſnares uſually laid for them, the Negroes and Mulattoes, who fell wood in the foreſts of the mountains, are very dexterous in encountering them, and ſome, even on account of a ſlender reward, ſeek them in their retreats.

Among the great variety of animals in this country, one of the moſt remarkable is, the Perico ligero, or *nimble Peter*, an ironical name given it on account of its extreme ſluggiſhneſs and ſloth. It reſembles a middling monkey in ſhape, but of a wretched appearance, the ſkin of it being of a greyiſh brown, and all over corrugated, and the legs and feet without any hair. He is ſo lumpiſh as not to ſtand in need of either chain or hutch, for he never ſtirs till compelled by hunger; and ſhews no manner of apprehenſion either of man or wild beaſts. When he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch a plaintive, and at the ſame time ſo diſagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and diſguſt; and this even in the ſlighteſt motion of the head, legs, or feet, proceeding, probably, from a general contraction of the muſcles and nerves of his body, which puts him to an extreme pain when he endeavours to move them. In this diſagreeable cry conſiſts his whole defence; for, it being natural to him to fly at the firſt hoſtile approach of any beaſt, he makes at every motion ſuch howlings as are even inſupportable to his purſuer, who ſoon quits him, and even flies beyond the hearing of his horrid noiſe. Nor is it only during the time he is in motion that he makes theſe cries; he repeats them while he reſts himſelf, continuing a long time motionleſs, before he takes another march. The food of this creature is generally wild fruits, and when he can find none on the ground, he looks out for a tree well loaded, which, with a great deal of pains, he climbs; and in order to ſave himſelf ſuch another toilſome aſcent, plucks off all the fruit, throwing them on the ground; and, to avoid the pain of deſcending the tree, forms himſelf into a ball and drops from the branches. At the foot of this tree he continues till all the fruits are conſumed

ſumed, never ſtirring till hunger forces him to ſeek again for food.

Serpents are here numerous, and deadly; and toads innumerable, ſwarming not only in the damp and marſhy places, as in other countries, but even in the ſtreets, courts of houſes, and all open places in general. They generally meaſure about ſix inches in length, and nothing can be imagined more diſmal than their croakings during the night, in all parts of the town, woods, and caverns of the mountains.

The town of Porto Bello, which is thinly inhabited, by reaſon of its noxious air, the ſcarcity of proviſions, and the barrenneſs of its ſoil, becomes at the arrival of the galleons one of the moſt populous towns in all South America. He who hath ſeen this town quite empty, and every place wearing a melancholy aſpect, muſt be filled with aſtoniſhment at the ſudden change; to ſee the buſtling multitudes, every houſe crowded, the ſquares and ſtreets incumbered with bales of merchandize, and cheſts of gold and ſilver; the harbour full of ſhips and veſſels, ſome bringing the goods of Peru, as cacao, Jeſuit's bark, vicuna-wool, and bezoar-ſtones; others coming from Carthagena, loaded with proviſions; and thus a ſpot, at all other times deteſted for its deleterious qualities, becomes the ſtaple of the riches of the old and new worlds, and the ſcene of one of the moſt conſiderable branches of commerce in both.

Formerly this fair was limited to no particular time; but, as a long ſtay in ſuch a ſickly place, extremely affected the health of the traders, his catholic majeſty tranſmitted an order, that the fair ſhould not laſt above forty days, and that if, in this time, the merchants could not agree in their rates, thoſe of Spain ſhould be allowed to carry their goods up the country to Peru; and accordingly the commodore of the galleons has orders to re-embark them, and return to Carthagena; but otherwiſe by virtue of a compact between the merchants of both kingdoms, and ratified by the king, no Spaniſh trader is to ſend his goods, on his own account, beyond Porto Bello: and, on the contrary, thoſe of the Engliſh were formerly permitted to ſend annually a ſhip to this fair, which turned to great account, and whilſt the aſſiento of the Negroes ſubſiſted either with the Engliſh or French, one of the principal factories was ſettled at Porto Bello.

Panama is built on the other ſide of the iſthmus of the ſame name, the coaſt of which is waſhed by the South Sea.

Its

Its latitude is 8 deg. 57 min. 48 ſec. ¼ north, but its longitude is uncertain. In 1521, the emperor Charles V. conſtituted it a city, with the proper privileges. In 1670, it had the misfortune to be ſacked and burnt by John Morgan, an Engliſh adventurer, who had before taken Porto Bello and Maracaybo. This misfortune rendering it abſolutely neceſſary to rebuild the city, it was removed to its preſent ſituation, which is about a league and a half from the former, and much more convenient. It has a wall of freeſtone, and is defended by a large garriſon of regulars, from whence detachments are ſent to do duty at Darien, Porto Bello, and Chagre. The houſes in general are of ſtone, and make a handſome appearance. The ſtreets are ſtrait and broad, and for the moſt part paved. In this city is a tribunal, or royal audience, in which the governor of Panama preſides; and to this employment is annexed the captainſhip-general of Terra Firma, generally conferred on an officer of diſtinction, though his common title is that of preſident of Panama. It has alſo a cathedral, and ſome religious houſes. There are none here of ſuch monſtrous fortunes, as in ſome cities of America; yet it is not deſtitute of wealthy inhabitants, and all have a ſufficiency; ſo that if it cannot be claſſed among opulent cities, it is certainly above poverty.

The harbour of this city is formed, in its road, by the ſhelter of ſeveral iſlands. The ſhips here lie very ſafe, and their diſtance from the city is about three leagues. Both the road and whole coaſt abound in a great variety of excellent fiſh. At the bottom of the ſea are a great number of pearls, and the oyſters in which they are found are remarkably delicious. This kind of fiſhery is of great advantage to the inhabitants of all the iſlands in this bay; and there are few perſons of ſubſtance near Panama, who do not employ all, or at leaſt part of their ſlaves, in this fiſhery, the manner of which not being commonly known, it will not be improper to deſcribe it here. *Pearl-fiſhery.*

The owners of the Negroes employ the moſt proper perſons for this fiſhery, which being performed at the bottom of the ſea, they muſt be both expert ſwimmers, and capable of holding their breath a long time. Theſe they ſend to the iſlands, where they have huts built for their lodgings, and boats which hold eight, ten, or twenty Negroes, under the command of an officer. In theſe boats they go to ſuch parts as are known to produce pearls, and where the depth of the water is not above ten, twelve, or fifteen fathom. Here they come to an anchor, and the Negroes

having a rope faſtened round their bodies, and the other end to the ſide of the boat, they take with them a ſmall weight to accelerate their ſinking, and plunge into the water. On reaching the bottom, they take up an oyſter, which they put under the left arm; the ſecond they hold in their left hand, and the third in their right; with theſe three oyſters, and ſometimes another in their mouth, they riſe to breathe, and put them in a bag. When they have reſted themſelves a while, they dive a ſecond time, and thus continue, till they have either completed their taſk, or their ſtrength fails them. Every one of theſe Negro divers is obliged daily to deliver to his maſter a certain number of pearls; ſo that when they have got a ſufficient number of oyſters in their bag, they begin to open them, and deliver the pearls to the officer, till they have made up the number due to their maſter; and if the pearl be but formed it is ſufficient without any regard to its being ſmall or faulty. The remainder, how large or beautiful ſoever, are the Negroe's own property, nor has the maſter the leaſt claim to them, the ſlaves being allowed to ſell them to whom they pleaſe, though the maſter generally purchaſes them at a very ſmall price.

Beſides the toil of this fiſhery, from the oyſters ſtrongly adhering to the rocks, they are alſo in no ſmall danger from ſome kinds of fiſh, which either ſeize the Negroes, or by ſtriking on them, cruſh them by their weight againſt the bottom: ſo that theſe creatures ſeem to know that men are robbing them of the moſt valuable product of their element, and therefore make a vigorous attack upon their enemy. Every Negroe, to defend himſelf againſt theſe animals, carries with him a ſharp knife, with which the the fiſh being ſtruck, immediately flies off. The officers keep a watchful eye on thoſe voracious creatures, and, on diſcovering them, ſhake the ropes faſtened to the Negroes bodies, that they may be upon their guard. Many, on the divers being in danger, have thrown themſelves into the water, with the like weapon, and haſtened down to their defence: but too often all their dexterity and precaution are not ſufficient to protect the diver from being devoured by theſe fiſh, or loſing one of his legs or arms by their bite. Several ſchemes have been practiſed to prevent ſuch melancholy accidents; but have hitherto proved ineffectual.

The pearls of thoſe fiſheries are generally of a good water, and ſome very remarkable both in ſhape and ſize; but, as there is a difference in both theſe properties, ſo there is alſo in their difference of colour, ſome being highly valuable, and others as remarkably defective; ſome of theſe

pearls, though, indeed but few, are ſent to Europe; the greateſt part being carried to Lima, where the demand for them is very great, being not only univerſally worn there by all perſons of rank, but alſo ſent from thence into the inland parts of Peru. There are forty-three iſlands where the pearl-fiſhery is carried on; ſome of them in the bay of Panama, ſome near the coaſt of that city, and others ſouth of Veraguas.

From what has been ſaid relating to the commerce of Porto Bello, in the time of the galleons, an idea may be formed of that of Panama on the ſame occaſion, this city being the firſt where the treaſure from Peru is landed, and likewiſe the ſtaple for goods brought up the river Chagre. Even during the abſence of the armada, it is never without a great number of ſtrangers, being the thoroughfare for all going to the ports of Peru, in the South Sea, as alſo for any coming from thence to Spain: to which muſt be added, the continual trade carried on by the Peruvian ſhips, and the coaſting barks, which abundantly ſupply the city with all neceſſaries. The climate here, though hot, is by far more healthful than at Porto Bello, and the inhabitants in general may be ſaid to live very comfortably.

Cartha-gena

The city of Carthagena ſtands in 10 deg. 25 min. 48 ſec. ½ north latitude, and in the longitude of 301 deg. 19 min. 36 ſec. from the meridian of Pico Teneriffe. Its advantageous ſituation, the extent and ſecurity of its bay, and the great ſhare it attained of the commerce of that ſouthern continent, ſoon cauſed it to be erected into an epiſcopal ſee. The ſame circumſtances contributed to its preſervation and increaſe, as the moſt eſteemed ſettlement and ſtaple of the Spaniards; but at the ſame time they alſo drew on it the hoſtility of foreigners, who, thirſting after its riches, or induced by the importance of the place itſelf, have ſeveral times invaded, taken, and plundered it.

The city is ſituated on a ſandy iſland, which forming a narrow paſſage on the ſouth-weſt, opens a communication with that part called Tierra Bomba, as far as Boca Chica. The neck of land which now joins them, was formerly the entrance of the bay; but having been cloſed up by orders from Madrid, Boca Chica became the only entrance; and this laſt has been filled ſince the laſt attempt of the Engliſh in 1741, who, having made themſelves maſters of the forts which defended it, entered the bay with an intent of taking the city; but they miſcarried in their attempt, and retired with loſs. This event cauſed orders to be diſpatched for opening the old entrance, by which all ſhips now enter the bay. On the north ſide the land is ſo narrow, that

before the wall was begun, the diſtance from ſea to ſea was only thirty-five toiſes; but afterwards enlarging, another iſland was formed on this ſide, and the whole city is now, excepting theſe two places, which are very narrow, entirely ſurrounded by the ſea. Eaſtwards it communicates by means of wooden bridge, with a large ſuburb called Xexemani, built on another iſland, which has alſo a communication with the continent by means of another wooden bridge. The fortifications both of the city and ſuburb are conſtructed in the modern manner, and lined with free-ſtone. The garriſon in times of peace conſiſts of ten companies of regulars, each containing, officers included, ſeventy-ſeven men, beſides ſeveral companies of militia.

On the Xexemani ſide, at a ſmall diſtance from that ſuburb, on a hill, is a fort called St. Lazaro, commanding both the city and ſuburb, and having an enchanting proſpect, extending over the country and coaſt to an immenſe diſtance. The city and ſuburbs are well laid out, the ſtreets being ſtraight, broad, uniform, and well paved. The houſes are built of ſtone, except a few of brick; but conſiſt chiefly of only one ſtory above the ground-floor; the apartments well contrived. The churches and convents are of a proper architecture, and ſufficiently capacious; ſo that in the whole, Carthagena, with its ſuburbs, is equal to a city of the third rank in Europe, and is well peopled, though moſt of its inhabitants are deſcended from the Indian tribes: it is not the moſt opulent in this country, for beſides the pillages it has ſuffered, no mines are worked here, and moſt of the money ſeen in it is ſent from Santa Fé, and Quito, to pay the ſalaries of the governor, and other civil and military officers, and the wages of the garriſon; and even this makes no long ſtay here. It is not, however, unfrequent to find perſons who have acquired handſome fortunes by commerce, whoſe houſes are ſplendidly furniſhed, and who live in every reſpect agreeable to their wealth. The governor reſides in the city, which, till the year 1739, was independent of the military government. In civil affairs an appeal lies to the audience of Santa Fé, and a viceroy of Santa Fé being that year created, under the title of viceroy of New Granada, the government of Carthagena became ſubject to him alſo in military affairs. The juriſdiction of the government reaches eaſtward to the great river de la Magdalena, and along it ſouthward, till, winding away, it borders on the province of Antioquia; from thence it ſtretches weſtward to the river Darien; and from thence northward to the ocean, all along the coaſts

between the mouths of these two rivers. The extent of this government from east to west is generally computed at fifty-three leagues, and from south to north eighty-five. In this space are several fruitful vallies, called by the natives savanhahs, and in them many settlements, large and small, of Europeans, Spanish Creoles, and Indians. The bay of Carthagena is the first place in America at which the galleons are allowed to touch; and thus it enjoys the first fruits of commerce, by the public sales made there. These sales, though not accompanied with the formalities observed at Porto Bello fair, are very considerable. The traders of the inland provinces of Santa Fé, Popayan, and Quito, lay out not only their own stock, but also the monies intrusted to them by commissions, for several sorts of goods, and those species of provisions which are most wanted in their respective countries. The two provinces of Santa Fé and Popayan, have no other way of supplying themselves with the latter than from Carthagena. Their traders bring gold and silver in specie, ingots, and dust, and also emeralds: as, besides the silver mines worked at Santa Fé, and which daily increase by fresh discoveries, there are others which yield the finest emeralds; but the value of these gems being now fallen in Europe, and particularly in Spain, the trade of them, formerly so considerable, is now greatly lessened, and consequently the reward for finding them. All these mines produce great quantities of gold, which is carried to Choco, and there pays one fifth to the king, at an office erected for that purpose.

The climate of Carthagena is excessive hot, yet the inhabitants enjoy a good state of health, and generally live to a great age. It will be here unnecessary to describe the other divisions of Terra Firma, as being chiefly inland countries, and scarce ever objects of any of our expeditions in time of war with the Spaniards.

Peru, next in order, formerly a powerful empire, is situated between 60 and 81 deg. of west longitude, and between the equator and 25 deg. of south latitude, being near two thousand miles in length from north to south, and from two hundred to five hundred broad; bounded by Popayan on the north; by the mountains of Andes, or Cordilleras, which separate it from the country of the Amazons and Paraguay, on the east; by Chili and la Plata on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, on the west. It is divided into three parts, the north, middle, and south: the north division comprehends the province of Quito; the chief towns Quito and Payta: the middle division that of Lima, or Los Reyes; the chief towns Lima, *Peru.*

Cuſco, and Callao: and the ſouth diviſion that of Los Charcos; the chief towns Potoſi and Porco.

The coaſt of Peru, which extends upwards of fifteen hundred miles along the Pacific Ocean, is a high bold ſhore. About thirty miles within land is a chain of mountains, called the Sierras; and beyond theſe, about eighty miles, are prodigious high mountains, called the Cordilleras des Andes, which, with the Sierras, run the whole length of South America, upwards of three thouſand miles. They are always covered with ſnow, and the air on them is too pure and ſubtile for animals to breathe in; nor are there any beaſts upon them, wild or tame. It never rains in that part of the country which lies near the ſea-coaſt, unleſs within three or four degrees of the equator; but the country is watered by the rivers which fall from the Andes into the South Sea: theſe they turn into the fields and gardens, and have their vintage and harveſt at what time of the year they pleaſe, this being the only country between the tropics that affords wine. The wind blows continually from the ſouth, or ſouth-weſt at ſea, near the coaſt. The weather is bright, when the ſun is in the northern ſigns; and hazy when ſouth of the equator, though no rain falls. The ſandy plains near the ſea-ſhore are perfectly barren, except ſome few vallies. The Sierras are alſo barren hills, but the vallies beneath are fruitful, and produce almoſt all manner of grain and fruits. This part of the country is beſt inhabited, being the moſt temperate, for the ſandy plains near the ſea are exceſſive hot.

The Peruvian ſheep, called pacos, or huancu, are of the bigneſs of a ſtag, and reſemble a camel. The body is covered with a coarſe kind of wool; they are very tractable, and were formerly the only beaſts of burden among the Peruvians: the fleſh is very good meat, and eſteemed as innocent as chickens. The vicuna, to which the Spaniards give the name of the Indian goat, ſomething reſembles that animal. The bezoar-ſtone is found in it, and is famed for expelling poiſons and performing many cures. Their deer are much ſmaller than ours; their wild beaſts not many, and thoſe not ſo fierce and dangerous as in this continent. The cattle imported from Europe are vaſtly increaſed, and many of them run wild and are hunted like other game. They had no tame fowl but the nuana, moſtly reſembling the duck, but much larger. Among their foreſt-trees, the moſt valuable is the quinquina, or Jeſuit's bark, which grows in the province of Quito: it is about the ſize of a cherry-tree, the leaves round and indented; and bears a long reddiſh flower, from whence ariſes a pod with a ker-

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nel like an almond. The tree that yields this bark grows alſo on the mountains of Potoſi: neither the flower nor fruit have the ſame virtue. They have now plenty of European corn and wine; bread is likewiſe made of the caſſivi-root, as in other parts of America. Balſam of Peru proceeds from the trunk and branches of a little tree; and the country beſides yields ſtorax, guaiacum, and ſeveral other gums and drugs.

Gold is found in every province of Peru, waſhed down from the mountains; and there are plenty of ſilver mines, of which the richeſt are thoſe of Potoſi, diſcovered in 1545: it is a ſolid rock, and the ore ſo hard that they break it with hammers, and it ſplits as if it were flint. The quickſilver mines near Lima were not diſcovered till 1567, and the Spaniards did not begin to refine their ſilver with mercury at Potoſi till 1571; whereby they extracted a great deal more ſilver from the ore than they could do before by fire.

Lima.

The city of Lima, the capital of Peru, is ſituated in the ſpacious and delightful valley of Rimac, in the latitude of 12 deg. 2 min. 31 ſec. ſouth; and longitude, from the meridian of Teneriffe, 299 deg. 27 min. 7 $\frac{2}{3}$ ſec. This ſituation is one of the moſt advantageous that can be imagined; for being in the center of that ſpacious valley, it commands the whole without any difficulty. Northward, though at a conſiderable diſtance, is the Cordillera, or chain of the Andes, from whence ſome hills project into the valley. A river, which is of the ſame name, waſhes the walls of Lima, and has a very elegant and ſpacious ſtone bridge built over it. Lima now affords but a faint idea of its former glory, magnificence, opulence, and other particulars which rendered it ſo famous in the world. The tremendous earthquake, of the 28th of October, 1746, leaves ſtill room, inſtead of noble objects, for introducing the moſt melancholy and ſhocking ſcenes of ruinated palaces, churches, towers, and other ſtately works of art. Were it not for this dreadful circumſtance, to which Lima is ſubject, it would be one of the moſt deſirable places of abode in the world: but, unhappily, the interval between the earthquakes felt here, is never of a length ſufficient to obliterate the remembrance of them. However, though frequent and ſudden, they have their preſages, one of the principal of which is a rumbling noiſe in the bowels of the earth, about a minute before the ſhocks are felt, and this noiſe does not continue in the place where it was firſt produced, but ſeems to pervade all the adjacent ſubterranean parts. This is followed by diſmal howlings of the dogs, which

ſeem to have the firſt perception of the approaching danger. The beaſts of burden paſſing the ſtreets ſtop, and, by a natural inſtinct, ſpread open their legs, the better to ſecure themſelves from falling. On theſe portents, the terrified inhabitants fly from their houſes into the ſtreets with ſuch precipitation, that if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked: fear, and the urgency of the danger, baniſh at once all ſenſe of decency; and in a ſhort time the whole city exhibits one dreadful ſcene of conſternation and horror. Nor does this end with the ſhock, none venturing to return to their houſes, through fear of a repetition, which frequently demoliſhes thoſe buildings which had been weakened by the firſt.

The frequent earthquakes to which South America, particularly Lima and all the neighbouring country, is ſubject, opens a field for enquiry concerning their cauſes. Many hypotheſes have been formed by philoſophers; but the immediate cauſe of earthquakes, with the greateſt appearance of truth, is a ſubterraneous exploſion; and the cauſe of this ſubterraneous exploſion is a quantity of water ſuddenly breaking in upon a ſubterraneous fire, by which a vapour is inſtantly produced, the elaſtic force of which is equal to all the phenomena produced by thunder.

The city of Lima could not have attained to all its ſplendour, if, beſides being the capital of Peru, it had not been alſo the general ſtaple of the kingdom. But, as it is the reſidence of the government and chief tribunals, ſo it is alſo the common factory for commerce of every kind, and the center of the products and manufactures of the other provinces, together with thoſe of Europe, brought over in the galleons or regiſter-ſhips; and from hence they are diſtributed through the vaſt extent of theſe kingdoms, whoſe wants are ſupplied from Lima, as their common mother. All the wealth of the ſouthern provinces being brought to Lima, is there embarked on board the fleet, which at the time of the galleons, ſails from Callao to Panama. The proprietors of the treaſure commit it to the merchants of Lima, who traffic at the fair with this and their own ſtock. The ſame fleet returns to the harbour of Paita, where the European merchandizes of value, purchaſed at Porto Bello fair, are landed, in order to avoid the delay of ſailing to Callao, and ſent by land to Lima on droves of mules; but thoſe of leſs value are carried thither by the ſame ſhips.

The viceroyalty of Peru extends over thoſe extenſive countries included in the juriſdiction of the audiences of Lima, Los Charcas, and Chili; and in theſe are comprehended

herded the governments of Santa Cruz, de la Sierra, Paraguay, Tucuman, and Buenos Ayres. Though theſe three provinces and the kingdom of Chili, have particular governors inveſted with all the authority agreeable to ſuch a character, and as ſuch are abſolute in political, civil, and military affairs, yet in ſome caſes they are ſubordinate to the viceroy; for inſtance, on the death of any inferior governor, the vacancy is ſupplied by him.

The kingdom of Chili next preſents itſelf: it extends from the frontiers of Peru to the ſtreights of Magellan, the diſtance being five hundred and thirty leagues. Thoſe two kingdoms are ſeparated by the deſart of Atacamo, which extends eighty leagues between the provinces of the ſame name, being the laſt of Peru, and the valley of Copoyapu, the firſt in Chili. Eaſtward, ſome parts of this kingdom terminate on the frontiers of Paraguay, though ſome uninhabited deſarts intervene; and others confine on the government of Buenos Ayres, though between theſe are the Pampas, or extenſive and level plains. Its weſtern boundary is the South Sea, extending from 27 deg. nearly, the latitude of Copoyapu, to 53 deg. 30 min. ſouth. But to confine ourſelves to the true extent of this kingdom, as inhabited by the Spaniards, it begins at Copoyapu, and terminates at the large iſland of Chiloe, the ſouthern extremity of which is 34 deg. of ſouth latitude; and its extent from weſt to eaſt is the diſtance between the Cordillera, which is here of a ſtupendous height, and the coaſt of the South Sea; that is, about thirty leagues. *Chili.*

Part of the country which at preſent compoſes the kingdom of Chili was ſubjected to the empire of the Yncas by Yupanqui, the tenth emperor; who, incited by the inchanting account given of thoſe provinces, undertook the conqueſt of them; and proſecuted the enterprize with ſuch ſucceſs, that he ſubdued the ſeveral nations which inhabited the vallies of Copoyapu, Coquimpu, and Chili. But in his intended career ſouthward, the victorious Ynca met with an unſurmountable difficulty from the Purumauco Indians, and other nations, whom the rapidity of his conqueſts had induced to oppoſe him by a general confederacy. Thus he found himſelf under a neceſſity of deſiſting, after having carried his arms as far as the river Mauli, which is in the latitude of 34 deg. 30 min.

After the Spaniards had undertaken a deſcent in Peru, and made themſelves maſters of its provinces, the marſhal Don Diego de Almagro was commiſſioned for the conqueſt of Chili. Accordingly he marched from Cuſco, at the beginning of the year 1535, and, after loſing the greateſt part

part of his Indians, and a conſiderable number of Spaniards, of which his army was compoſed, who periſhed with cold in paſſing over the Cordillera Nevada, he arrived at Copoyapu, where the Indians, without trying the chance of war, ſubmitted. Animated with this unexpected puſillanimity, he proceeded to the conqueſt of other nations, and even ſuch as never had acknowleged the Yncas: and, though he here met with a more warlike people, who were determined to ſell their liberty dear, he carried on the war very proſperouſly. But the king, in conſideration of his great ſervices, performed with ſo much hazard, having conferred on him the government of a territory one hundred leagues in length, ſouth of that which belonged to the marquis Don Franciſco Pizarro, a difference aroſe between them, in regard to the boundaries of their reſpective governments. Almagro being impatient to take poſſeſſion, and pretending that the city of Cuſco ought to be included in his government, the conqueſt was ſuſpended, and he himſelf haſtened to that city, where, inſtead of being inveſted with the chief command, he fell a ſacrifice to the jealouſy of Pizarro, who endeavoured to conceal his irregular proceedings under the veil of juſtice.

In 1541, the conqueſt of Chili was again ſet on foot, and the marquis Pizarro conferred the command on Pedro de Valdivia, together with the title of general. Accordingly, he marched into the country, and founded moſt of the principal towns and villages in it: ſo that, in the year 1548, he was promoted to the government of it by the preſident of Peru. In the proſecution of the conqueſt of theſe provinces, he had many ſharp ſkirmiſhes with the natives, till at laſt, in 1553, bravely oppoſing a general revolt, with a very inferior force, he fell fighting with the greateſt intrepidity at the head of his troops, the greateſt part of whom, enraged at loſing ſo brave a man, choſe to periſh with him, rather than ſave themſelves by flight. His name, beſides the figure it makes in hiſtory, is ſtill preſerved in this country in the town of Valdivia, which he founded.

The martial genius of the Indians of this kingdom conſiderably retarded the reduction of it, and has always been the chief cauſe why the Spaniſh ſettlements here are ſo little proportionate to the extent, fertility, and riches of the country. The beauties of the parts adjacent to the city of Conception are enchanting, and the returns of nature, for the huſbandman's toil, exuberant. The like profuſion of natural productions is ſeen all over this kingdom. Its plains, eminences, vallies, in ſhort, the whole country is an object of admiration. Every particle of earth, in this amazing

amazing fertility, ſeems transformed into ſeed. The country round Sant Jago, as it is not inferior in pleaſantneſs and fertility to that of Conception, ſo alſo, from the great affinity to the climates, its products are nearly the ſame. Accordingly, ſome farmers wholly apply themſelves to corn, others to fattening cattle; ſome to the breeding of horſes, others to the culture of vines and fruit-trees; the firſt find their account in plentiful harveſts of wheat, barley, and particularly in hemp, which thrives here ſurpriſingly. The ſecond, by their large ſlaughters, have great quantities of tallow, ſole-leather tanned, and Cordovan leather, graſſa, charqui, and neat's tongues; the three laſt being no inconſiderable articles.

Beſides the commerce carried on with Peru in theſe articles and many others, we muſt alſo mention that of metals, this kingdom abounding in mines of all kinds, but principally of gold and copper. The moſt famous gold-mine lies in a country eaſt of Sant Jago: this gold was formerly highly eſteemed, and found in great plenty; but now, on account of a whitiſh tinge, the value of it is conſiderably diminiſhed. This mine, for the length of time it has been worked, is equal to the moſt celebrated in Peru. In the country of Yapel, which is ſituated in the ſame quarter, but farther to the northward, along the Cordillera, are alſo rich gold mines, and the metal twenty-three carats fine. In 1710, in the mountains of Lumpanqui, near the Cordillera, were diſcovered ſeveral mines of gold, ſilver, copper, lead, tin, and iron; and the gold between twenty-one and twenty-two carats fine; but the working, from the hardneſs of the ſtone, is very difficult and laborious. This inconvenience does not, however, occur in the mountain Llavin, where the ſtone is ſoft, and not leſs rich in metal, equal in fineneſs to the former. Beſides theſe, there are other gold-mines, worked with good ſucceſs at Tiltil, near Sant Jago. Between Quillota and Valparaiſo, in a part called Ligua, is a very rich gold-mine, and the metal greatly eſteemed. Coquimbo, Copoyapu, and Guaſco, have alſo gold-mines, and the metal found in the two laſt, is, by way of pre-eminence, called oro capote, being the moſt valuable of any yet diſcovered. Another kind of mine of the ſame metal was alſo found in this kingdom, but was exhauſted ſoon after it had elated the hopes of the undertakers with ſome rich ſpecimens. Mines of this kind are very common, as well as another kind called lavaderos, which are pits dug in the angles of trenches made by rain, wherein it is imagined there may be gold; and, in order to diſcover the metal, a ſtream of water is turned through

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it, and the earth briſkly ſpread, that the gold may be carried down with the current, and depoſited in the pits. All the gold thus collected in Chili is brought to Lima to be coined; and by the accounts conſtantly taken, it amounts, one year with another, to ſix hundred thouſand dollars; but that clandeſtinely ſent by way of the Cordillera is ſaid to be near four hundred thouſand; conſequently, the whole muſt be at leaſt a million. In the countries of Coquimbo and Guaſco, mines of all kinds of metals are ſo very common, that the whole earth ſeems wholly compoſed of minerals; and it is here thoſe of copper are worked, and from them all Peru and the kingdom of Chili are furniſhed with that metal. But though this copper exceeds every thing of that kind hitherto known, the mines are worked with great caution, and no more metal extracted than is ſufficient to anſwer the uſual demand; and other mines, though known to be equally rich, are left untouched.

The country of Chili, near the Pacific Ocean, enjoys a fine temperate air, and a clear, ſerene ſky moſt part of the year. The rivers and ſprings are frozen up in the winter ſeaſon on the mountains, and thoſe who paſs the higheſt of them at any time of the year, feel an air ſo piercing and ſubtile, that it is with difficulty they breathe. There are, in this chain of mountains, a great many volcanoes, which ſometimes break out, and cauſe very terrible and aſtoniſhing effects.

Patagonia. Patagonia is ſometimes deſcribed as part of Chili, but, as it is yet inhabited only by the Indians, it may be reckoned a diſtinct country, and with it alſo may be included the iſland of Terra del Fogo, from which it is ſeparated only by the narrow ſtrait of Magellan. The Spaniards, who built a fort upon the ſtraits of Magellan, left a garriſon in it to prevent any other European nation paſſing that way into the South Sea; but loſt moſt of their men, who periſhed for want of food, from whence the place obtained the name of Port Famine, and no people have attempted to plant colonies here ever ſince.

Paraguay. Paraguay, or la Plata, is bounded by the country of the Amazons on the north; by Brazil on the eaſt; by Patagonia on the ſouth; and by Peru and Chili on the weſt. It is fifteen hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, and almoſt as much in breadth. The country produces rice and Indian corn, and the Spaniards have introduced European corn and fruits as well as cattle, of which laſt there are numerous herds. To the weſt of the great river Paraguay, are vaſt plains, extending ſome hundred miles, with very little wood upon them, and ſcarce a hill to be

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ſeen; but on the eaſt of the river Paraguay, which is divided from Brazil by a chain of mountains, there is a variety of hills and vallies, woods, and champaign. This was the property of the Jeſuits before their expulſion, and was very well cultivated by the natives, who were their proſelytes and ſubjects. This country is called Paraguay, from the river that runs through it in north to ſouth; and la Plata, from the river which riſes from Peru, and running ſouth-weſt through it, joins its waters with the Paraguay, near Buenos Ayres; after which the united ſtream is called la Plata, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between the Spaniſh territories of la Plata, and the Portugueſe territories of Brazil. The Spaniards bring part of the treaſures of Peru from thence to Buenos Ayres, down the river la Plata; and, at Buenos Ayres, put them on board of ſhips for Spain, with great quantities of ſkins, and other merchandize of thoſe countries. But all articles of commerce are far leſs advantageous to the inhabitants than the herb called Paraguay, which alone would be ſufficient to form a flourriſhing trade in this province, it being the only place which produces it, and from hence it is ſent all over Peru and Chili, where its uſe is univerſal.

The climate of Paraguay is very little different from that of Spain; and the diſtinctions between the ſeaſons are the ſame. In winter, indeed, violent tempeſts of winds and rains are here very frequent, accompanied with ſuch dreadful thunders and lightnings as fill the inhabitants, though uſed to them, with terror and conſternation. In ſummer, the exceſſive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which conſtantly begin at eight or nine in the morning. In ſhort, for the enjoyments of life, eſpecially with regard to the ſalubrity of the air, a finer country cannot be imagined.

We now paſs from the Spaniſh dominions in South-America to thoſe of the Portugueſe, which conſiſt of the territories of Brazil. This country is ſituated between 35 and 60 deg. of weſt longitude, and between the equator and 35 deg. of ſouth latitude; bounded by the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt; by the river la Plata on the ſouth; and by Paraguay and the country of the Amazons on the weſt; the chief town St. Salvador, on the bay of All Saints. The diſcovery of this country was entirely accidental; for the Portugueſe, ſailing with a conſiderable force to the Indies, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, to avoid the calms upon the coaſt of Africa, thought proper to ſtand out at ſea, by which means they fell upon the continent of South America, without having the leaſt idea of any ſuch country. Upon their return to Liſbon, they made ſo favour- *Brazil.*

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able report of the country, that the miniſtry took the affair into conſideration, and ſet about eſtabliſhing a colony with all imaginable expedition. The court of Spain, however, was greatly offended at their proceedings, as it claimed the ſole dominion of that extenſive country for itſelf; but finding the Portugueſe very ſtrenuous in defending their new-acquired property, the Spaniards thought a friendly accommodation more eligible than an open rupture; and agreed at laſt, that the Portugueſe ſhould poſſeſs all that tract between the river Amazon and the river la Plata.

But in the midſt of all this proſperity, one of thoſe important events which determines the fate of kingdoms, not only ſtripped the Portugueſe of this ſettlement, but left them alſo without liberty. Don Sebaſtian, one of their greateſt princes, periſhed in an expedition againſt the Moors; and the kingdom of Portugal fell entirely under the diſcretion of a Spaniſh government. Not long after this revolution in the affairs of Portugal, the Spaniſh yoke became ſo intolerable to the inhabitants of the Netherlands, that they made a deſperate effort for the recovery of their liberty, and fortunately regained it. Fluſhed with this ſucceſs, they began to make repriſals on the property of their former maſters; they attacked the Spaniards in their ſtrongeſt holds, and grew formidable by their conqueſts, and opulent by their plunder. The Portugueſe ſettlements principally engaged their attention: they ſubdued all the fortreſſes of any conſideration in the Eaſt Indies, which were not ſufficiently defended by the Spaniards; and then directed their operations to the Brazils, which they knew were at that time unprotected from Europe; and found means, by the diſhoneſty or cowardice of the governor, to get poſſeſſion of the then capital city, without much bloodſhed or expence. In this exigence it was, that the reverend hero, don Michael de Texeira, archbiſhop of the place, made ſo glorious an oppoſition in favour of his country. This illuſtrious prelate was deſcended from one of the nobleſt families in Portugal, and poſſeſſed a ſoul exalted with the higheſt principles of honour and virtue. The general emergency, he thought, exempted him from the neceſſity of complying with the ſtricter cuſtoms of his profeſſion, and he therefore looked upon every ceremonial obſervance as a matter of leſs conſequence than the welfare of the public. Accordingly, he took up arms, and, at the head of his monks and a few ſcattered forces, put a ſtop to the conqueſt of the Dutch, till aſſiſtance was ſent him from Europe. Upon the arrrival of this reinforcement, he reſigned the military command, which the public neceſſity

ceſſity had obliged him to aſſume, into the hands of a proper officer, and return to the duties of his own function, which he always diſcharged with exemplary piety and goodneſs. By this gallant behaviour of the biſhop, ſeven of the fourteen provinces, or cantonſhips, in the Brazils were preſerved to the Portugueſe, the other ſeven falling into the hands of the Dutch, who conquered and maintained them with a bravery that would have done them much honour, had it been more diſtinguiſhed by humanity.

The celebrated prince Maurice of Naſſau was, at that time, commander in chief of the Dutch forces, and to him they were principally indebted for the acquiſition of this colony, and the beneficial accommodation which ſecured them the poſſeſſion of it. But what the prince's great abilities had procured them, was afterwards loſt by their own parſimony and avarice. Too ſanguine after money, they complained of the expence their general put them to in erecting more fortreſſes, and keeping more troops than were neceſſary for their ſervice. His living in ſome ſplendour was alſo no little matter of uneaſineſs; and, in ſhort, looking upon official œconomy to be the moſt valuable qualification in a great captain, they treated prince Maurice with ſo little reſpect, that he threw up his command, and left them to govern their new-acquired territories as they could. Upon the prince's retiring from the command, their own frugal plan of government took place, and, for a little time, the advantages ariſing from theſe new regulations became very conſiderable. The expences of a court were retrenched; the charge of troops leſſened; the money laid out upon fortifications ſaved; their profits amounted to near cent. per cent. and every thing ſeemed in the moſt flouriſhing ſituation. But this flattering ſyſtem of government ended not only in the loſs of their capital, but the total ruin of their Weſt India company. They loſt the affection of the Indians by their avarice in dealing, and excited their reſentment by the rigour of their proceedings. From the defenceleſs condition of the frontiers, their neighbours were encouraged to encroach upon their ſettlements; and the Portugueſe, making one vigorous attempt, re-conquered that part of the Brazils which the Dutch had formerly taken from them, notwithſtanding the ſtates made a moſt reſolute ſtruggle in its defence. The Portugueſe, thus ſettled in their former poſſeſſions, proceeded with unwearied application to advance the intereſt of the colony.

The

The country they called Brazil, from a wood of that name, in which it plentifully abounds. It extends all along a charming ſea-coaſt, upon the Atlantic Ocean, upwards of two thouſand miles, between the river Amazon on the north, and la Plata on the ſouth. The Brazil-tree generally flouriſhes in rocky and barren grounds, where it often grows to a great height, and conſiderable thickneſs: but this thickneſs is liable to miſlead the judgment, in regard to the quantity of the wood; for, upon ſtripping off the bark, it happens very often, that a tree as thick as a man's body will be reduced to a log no larger than his leg. It commonly grows crooked and knotty like a hawthorn, with long branches, and a ſmooth green leaf, hard, brittle, and dry. Three time a-year bunches of ſmall flowers appear at the extremities of the branches, and between the leaves. Theſe flowers are of a bright red, and have a ſtrong aromatic and refreſhing ſmell. The wood is of a red colour, hard, and dry, and is uſed in dying red; but the red it produces is far from being of the beſt kind. It is alſo in ſome caſes adminiſtered as a medicine, both as a ſtomachic and aſtringent.

The Portugueſe trade in the Brazils is very great, and daily increaſing; and that ſettlement may, at this time, be reckoned by much the moſt flouriſhing of any in America. Their ſugar is conſiderably finer than that of any other eſtabliſhment in thoſe parts; and their tobacco is alſo remarkably good. In the laſt article they deal very extenſively to the coaſt of Africa, where they not only diſpoſe of it to the natives, but even ſupply the veſſels of other nations, who are obliged to purchaſe it, for the convenience of carrying on the gold-duſt and ſlave-trade with any tolerable advantage. The north and ſouth parts of the Brazils abound with horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides, of which no leſs than twenty thouſand are annually exported to Europe. The bay and river of Rio Janeiro are now reſorted to by the Portugueſe more than any other part of Brazil, on account of the gold and diamonds which have been diſcovered in the mountains to the weſtward of this and the neighbouring provinces of St. Vincent; and it is incredible what quantities of gold are conſtantly brought from thence. The ſouthern provinces of Brazil enjoy a healthy air, being conſtantly refreſhed with breezes from the ſea.

There is nothing farther of note in South America, but Amazonia and Guiana. Amazonia is remarkable for its river, being one of the largeſt in the world; and, no

gold

gold being found here, as was expected, neither the Spaniards, Portugueſs, nor any other European nation, have thought worth while to leave any colonies in it, ſo that the Indians remain a free people, not ſubject to any foreign dominion. The country obtained the name of Amazonia, from the Spaniards ſeeing women on the banks of the river with arms in their hands, which they carried only to eaſe their huſbands, as they do the baggage in all their expeditions. The Dutch have a colony at Surinam, in Guiana, and numerous plantations about it, which produce tobacco and ſugar; part of which they took from the Engliſh, in the reign of king Charles II. and by a ſubſequent peace theſe were confirmed to them, in conſideration of relinquiſhing their pretenſions to New-York, and other places in the northern colonies, which the Engliſh had taken from them. Except this colony, and ſome little iſlands on the coaſt of Terra Firma, and among the Caribbees, the Dutch have no other ſettlement in America.

SECT. II.

Of North America.

MEXICO is the firſt country that occurs in North America. It is diſtinguiſhed into Old and New. Old Mexico, or New Spain, lies between north latitude 7 deg. 30 min. and 30 deg. 40 min. and is bounded on the ſouth-eaſt by the iſthmus of Darien or Panama, and on the north-weſt by New Mexico. It is divided into three audiences, or ſovereign diſtricts, governed by a viceroy appointed by the king of Spain.

The three diſtricts or courts of audience are, 1. Guadalajara, which contain the provinces of Cinalva, Culiacan, Chamephan, Xaliſco, Guadalajara Proper, Zacatecas, and New Biſcay. 2. Mexico, including the provinces of Mechoacan, Mexico Proper, Panuco, Tlaſcala, Guaxaca, Tabaſco, and Yucatan. 3. Guatimala, containing the provinces of Chiapa, Sonocuſca, Guatimala Proper, Vera Pas, Honduras, Nicaragua, Coſta Rica, and Veragua.

Though this country lies for the moſt part within the torrid zone, yet the air is very temperate, and generally reckoned extraordinary wholeſome. It produces divers ſorts of grain, fruits, and herbs, rich mines of gold and ſilver, and good paſturage. Its chief grain is wheat, barley,

Pulſe, and maize; the chief fruits, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, cherries, apples, figs, and cocoa-nuts; and its principal commodities are wool, cotton, ſugar, ſilk, cochineal, feathers, honey, balm, amber, ſalt, tallow, hides, tobacco, ginger, and various medicinal drugs.

Manner of carrying on the Spaniſh trade in America.

The Spaniards, who have been long ſole maſters of this country, and of the far greater part of South America, have taken ſuch care to keep all foreigners out of them, that the lawful commerce between them and Europe is in their hands, and ſubject to the direction of their crown. It will not be improper to ſhew here in what manner the trade is carried on by annual ſhips, uſually divided into three claſſes, the flota, the regiſter-ſhips, and galleons.

Flota.

The flota is a fleet conſiſting of three men of war, and fourteen or fifteen merchant ſhips, from four hundred to one thouſand tons burthen; they are loaded almoſt with every ſort of goods which Europe produces for export; all ſorts of woollens, linens, ſilks, velvets, laces, glaſs, paper, and cutlery; all ſorts of wrought iron, watches, clocks, quickſilver for the uſe of their mines, horſe furniture, ſhoes, ſtockings, books, pictures, military ſtores, wines, fruits, &c. ſo that all the trading part of Europe are highly intereſted in the cargo of this fleet. Spain itſelf ſends out little more than the wine and fruit; this, with the freight, and commiſſions to the merchant, and duty to the king, is almoſt all the advantage which that kingdom derives from her commerce with the Indies. This fleet is fitted out at Cadiz, and bound to La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt part of the gulf of Mexico, and to the ſouth-eaſt of that city. They are not permitted to break bulk on any account, till they arrive there. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, cochineal, indigo, cocoa, tobacco, ſugar, and hides, which are the returns for Old Spain. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havanna in the iſland of Cuba, which is the place of their rendezvous, where they meet the galleons. Theſe are another fleet, which carry on all the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena; and of Peru, by Panama and Porto Bello, in the ſame manner as the flota ſerves for the trade of New Spain. When the flota arrives at the Havanna, and joins the galleons and regiſter-ſhips, which aſſemble at the ſame port from all quarters, ſome of the cleaneſt and beſt ſailing veſſels are diſpatched to Old Spain, with advice of the contents of theſe ſeveral fleets, as well as with treaſure and goods of their own, that the court may judge what indulto, or duty,

is proper to be laid on them, and what convoy is neceſſary for their ſafety.

Regiſter ſhips are ſent out by merchants at Cadiz or Seville, when they judge that goods muſt be wanted at any certain port in the Weſt Indies. The courſe is, to petition the council of the Indies for licence to ſend a ſhip of three hundred tons burthen, or under, to that port: they pay for this licence forty or fifty thouſand dollars, beſides preſents to the officers, in proportion to the connivance neceſſary to their deſign: for though the licence runs only to three hundred tons at moſt, the veſſel fitted out is ſeldom leſs than ſix hundred. The ſhip and cargo are regiſtered at the pretended burthen. It is required too, that a certificate be brought from the king's officer at the port to which the regiſter-ſhip is bound, that ſhe does not exceed the ſize at which ſhe is regiſtered; all this paſſes of courſe. Theſe are what are called regiſter-ſhips, and by theſe the trade of Spaniſh America has been carried on principally for ſome years paſt; which practice has been thought as much to the prejudice of their trade, as it is contrary to all their former maxims for carrying it on. *Regiſter ſhips.*

The fleet which is called the galleons, conſiſts of eight men of war of five hundred tons each, deſigned principally to ſupply Peru with military ſtores; but in reality laden, not only with thoſe, but with every other kind of merchandize on a private account, ſo as to be in too weak a condition either to defend themſelves, or protect others. Under the convoy of theſe are twelve ſail of merchant ſhips, not inferior to the galleons in burthen. This fleet of the galleons is regulated in much the ſame manner with the flota, and is deſtined for the excluſive commerce of Terra Firma, and the South Sea, as the flota is for that of Mexico. *Galleons.*

As ſoon as this galleon fleet arrives at Carthagena, expreſſes are diſpatched to Porto Bello, and to all the adjacent towns, but particularly to Panama, that they may get ready all the treaſure which is depoſited there, to meet the galleons at Porto Bello; at which place all the perſons concerned in the various branches of this extenſive trade aſſemble. There is no part of the world, as before obſerved, where buſineſs of ſuch great importance is negociated in ſo ſhort a time; for ſometimes in a fortnight the fair is over. During the fair, heaps of wedges and ingots of ſilver are thrown about upon the wharfs, as things of no value. The diſplay of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, on one hand, and of the various and rare workmanſhip of the

several ingenious fabrics of Europe on the other, are truly astonishing.

Acapulco galleon.

The whole trade between the East Indies and Spanish America is carried on by one great galleon, which arrives at Acapulco on the South Sea, from the Philippine Islands, in the month of December. They see no other land in their whole voyage of three thousand leagues, which they perform in five months, than the Little Ladrones. The ship is laden with all the rich commodities of the East, as cloves, pepper, cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, china, japan wares, callicoes plain and painted, muslins of every sort, silks, precious stones, rich drugs, and gold dust. At the same time the rich ship from Lima comes in, and is not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver (four hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling). Several other ships, from the different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion; and besides the traffic for the Philippine commodities, this causes a very large dealing for every thing which those countries have to exchange with one another, as well as for the purchase of all sorts of European goods. The fair at Acapulco lasts sometimes for thirty days. As soon as the goods are disposed of, the galleon prepares to set out on her voyage to the Philippines with her returns, chiefly in silver, but with some European goods too, and some other commodities of America. We speak here, as though there were but one vessel on the trade with the Philippines; and in fact there is only nominally one trading vessel, the galleon itself, of about twelve hundred tons; but another attends her commonly as a sort of convoy, which generally carries such a quantity of goods, as in a great measure disables her from performing that office. The galleon has often one thousand people on board, either interested in the cargo, or merely passengers; and there is no trade in which so large profits are made; the captain of the vessel, the pilots, the mates, and even the common sailors, making, in one voyage, what in their several ranks may be considered as easy fortunes. It is said by the writer of lord Anson's voyage, that the Jesuits had the profits of this ship to support their missions.

State of the Spanish commerce.

This commerce to so vast a value, though carried on directly between different parts of the king of Spain's own dominions, enriches them in proportion but very little; the far greater part of every thing which comes from the Philippines, being the produce or fabric of other countries; the Chinese particularly are largely interested in this cargo. The trade between Spain and her colonies in America, is the most considerable part of their external

commerce, and the great ſupport of their navy. But their internal traffic is by no means proportionate to the numbers of their people, the natural advantages of their ſituation and climate, the abundance of raw materials which their country produces, and their Indies ſupply them with. The truth is, the Spaniards add none of the artificial value of labour to any thing; and the great error of their policy ſeems to be this: they never ſufficiently attended to the truth of the following maxim, that induſtry, manual labour, and the arts, are more beneficial, and truer ſources of wealth to a ſtate, than the richeſt mines of gold and ſilver. Dazzled with the ſpoils of America, they turned their whole attention to ſeize the excluſive poſſeſſion of thoſe ſeeming riches; they neglected agriculture and manufactures, and contracted a contempt for the mechanic, and even liberal arts; in conſequence of which, the country becoming daily leſs populous, their maritime and military ſtrength ſoon declined. Of late years the Spaniſh miniſtry have been fully ſenſible of this fatal miſtake, and have endeavoured to raiſe a ſpirit of induſtry among the people, by promoting the eſtabliſhment of manufactures, in various parts of their dominions: but though they have tempted the people, by exemption from taxes, and many other privileges, yet the progreſs they have made is not ſo conſiderable as might have been expected.

Farther particulars of the commerce and commodities of Mexico.

But to proceed in our account of Mexico, though common report places mines of gold and ſilver in almoſt all the provinces, yet we are aſſured that both are only found in the province of Mexico. Of ſilver there are no leſs than a thouſand mines. Some Spaniſh authors ſay, that the gold is found only in Veragua, and New Granada. As to other commodities, there is an exceeding great quantity of ſugar, chiefly on the ſide of the gulf of Mexico, Guaxaca, &c. ſo that here are more ſugar-mills than in any part of Spaniſh America; but it is chiefly conſumed in the city of Mexico, and particularly the monaſteries, in chocolate, ſweet-meats, preſerves, and confectionary wares; of which, however, there is a vaſt deal ſent from Guaxaca, Guatimala, and other provinces, to Mexico and Panama, from whence it is carried by ſea to Lima, Guaiaquil, and Baldivia. There is a great home trade in the goods manufactured of cotton. They have the beſt indigo in the world; and the trade of cochineal is managed wholly by the merchants of Mexico and Carthagena. It is ſaid the people of Nicaragua and the Honduras employ three hundred thouſand mules and horſes to carry corn, ſugar, cocoa, &c. into the inland provinces, and particularly to the

city of Mexico. And when the galleons come from Old Spain, the number of carriages, men, and horses, employed to carry the treasure of the country to La Vera Cruz, is incredible. The carriage of the European goods that come by the galleons back again to other parts, is a very considerable article of trade; as is also the carriage of tobacco, sugar, and other produce of Guatimala, and Guaxaca, which come from the south coast to La Vera Cruz, all which is said to employ sixty thousand horses, mules, and asses, besides a proportionate number of men. So much silver is also brought from Zacatecas, as it is said six thousand mules are employed in the carriage of.

New Mexico. New Mexico, so called, because of its being discovered since the Old Mexico, or New Spain, is sometimes styled by the Spaniards, a kingdom, and sometimes a province. It is bounded on the north by high mountains, beyond which is a country altogether unknown; by Louisiana on the east; by some of the provinces of New Spain on the south; and on the west, by the gulf of California, and the Rio Colorado. But whether the limits on the north and east should be contracted or extended, is what we shall not pretend to determine; for there are no people that we know of to the north of New Mexico, nor is there a twentieth part of the country within the limits specified, that is either cultivated or inhabited; nor is it any more certain how we might venture to extend the limits of it on the east side towards Florida; no one having attempted to fix the bounds between these two countries, except the French, who have introduced Louisiana into their maps in the room of Florida, bounding it with the British plantations on the east, and New Mexico on the west. The extent, however, has not been discovered; but what has, may be said to extend three hundred leagues north from New Biscay; and there is no less from the streights of California on the west, towards Florida on the east.

As it lies in the midst of the temperate zone, it is a very pleasant climate; the summers are very warm, and the winters pretty sharp; but then the former are neither sultry nor unwholesome, and the latter are clear, without being intolerable. The weather upon the whole is, generally speaking, agreeable to the season, and refreshing to an European constitution. The soil is beautifully interspersed with rising grounds, and with rivers well stocked with fish; abounds with fruit and timber-trees; produces torquoises, emeralds, and other precious stones, has mines of gold and silver, and feeds all sorts of wild and tame cattle, especially those of the neat-kind. Here are also several sorts of fowl; and,

and, in fact, it is ſaid to be as pleaſant, plentiful, and rich a country as any in the world. There are few great rivers in it, but ſeveral ſmall ones run into the gulf of Mexico; and there are divers bays and creeks on that coaſt, which might eaſily be converted into ports.

The greateſt part of this country is ſtill in the hands of the natives, the principal of which are the Apaches, a warlike nation differing from all the other natives in language, being clad alſo in deer-ſkins, and living in tents, which they carry with them wherever they go. Thinking themſelves aggrieved by the Spaniſh government, about the cloſe of the laſt century, they made a general inſurrection, and did a vaſt deal of miſchief; but were at laſt ſuppreſſed, and have ſince been curbed by ſtronger garriſons. Moſt of the natives are now Chriſtians.

Some geographers divide New Mexico into fifteen provinces, many of the Spaniſh writers into eighteen, of which they give us barely the names; but the lateſt geographers ſeem to divide it only into five. On the other hand, ſome writers have ſubdivided it into twenty or twenty-five provinces, and furniſhed us with the names of as many towns; but we find no deſcription of any, but that which is by all agreed on to be the capital city, by name Santa Fé, which ſtands one hundred and thirty leagues from the ſea, near the ſource of Rio del Nort, which runs a great way through the country ſouthward, and then bending eaſt, falls into the gulf of Mexico. It is ſaid to be a rich city regularly built, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Mexico, as well as the ſeat of the governor of the country. Dampier has more than once mentioned the poſſibility of penetrating in this country to the gold mines, by making a deſcent on the ſhores, oppoſite to

California, which is reckoned by ſome a part of New Mexico, and by others, but improperly, a diſtinct country. It is ſituate between 116 and 138 degrees of weſt longitude, and between 23 and 46 degrees of north latitude, lying almoſt in the form of a cone reverſed. It was a matter of doubt for a long time, whether it was an iſland or peninſula; but was diſcovered to be the latter by father Caino, or Kino, a German Jeſuit, who landed in California from the iſland of Sumatra, and paſſed into New Mexico, without croſſing any other water than Rio Azul, or the Blue River, about north latitude 35. The more ſouthern part was known to the Spaniards ſoon after the diſcovery of Mexico; for Cortez diſcovered it in 1535; but they did not till lately penetrate far into it, contenting themſelves with the pearl fiſhery on the coaſt. But our ſir Francis *California.*

Drake landed there in 1578; and took poſſeſſion of California for his miſtreſs queen Elizabeth, by the name of New Albion; the king of the country actually inveſting him with its ſovereignty, and preſenting him with his crown of beautiful feathers; and the people thinking the Engliſh to be more than men, began to ſacrifice unto them, but were reſtrained. Though the Engliſh have never yet attempted to ſettle any colonies here, yet if the revival of our right ſhould ever become neceſſary, we ſeem to have a much better plea than the Spaniards.

It is bounded on the north by a continent unknown; on the eaſt by the province of New Mexico and the gulf of California, which ſome people call the Purple, or Red Sea; and by the South Sea on the ſouth and weſt. Though it lies for the moſt part in the temperate zone, there are great heats on the coaſt in ſummer, but the inland part is very temperate; and though in the winter it is pretty cold, it is judged to be a healthy country. In reſpect to the ſoil, the mountains are well wooded, and the plains well watered; they abound with fruit-trees, and are capable of bearing all ſorts of European grain. Here are deer, of which two kinds are peculiar to the country; all ſorts of fowl and birds, common in Europe or in the Indies; a prodigious plenty of ſea and river fiſh, particularly cray-fiſh, which are taken out and kept in reſervoirs. There is beſides, one of the greateſt pearl fiſheries in the world, and it is thought to have mines. It has two conſiderable rivers, Rio Collorado and Rio du Carmel, with ſeveral other ſmall rivers, and variety of fine ports, both on the eaſt and weſt ſides, with innumerable bays, creeks, and roads, which is the reaſon of its having been ſo much frequented by our privateers in the South Seas.

Such of the natives who live on the eaſt ſide, on the purple ſhore, are great enemies to the Spaniards; but, in other parts of the peninſula, they ſeem very hoſpitable to all ſtrangers.

It is obſervable of this country, that after the rainy ſeaſon is over, a great quantity of dew falls in the mornings, in April, May, and June, which not only renders the land exceeding fruitful, but, ſettling upon roſe leaves, candies and hardens like manna, and is ſweet as ſugar, though not ſo white and pleaſant to the eye. In the heart of the country there are plains of ſalt, quite firm and clear as cryſtal; which, conſidering the extraordinary quantity of fiſh of all ſorts that are found there, might prove of unſpeakable advantage to any civilized people, who were poſſeſſed of the country.

Here

Here is alſo excellent paſturage in all ſeaſons, for great and ſmall cattle. Almoſt every ſeaſon there is plenty of piſtachoes, of curious kinds, and figs of different colours. The trees are beautiful, and particularly thoſe called by the natives palo ſancto, yielding a great quantity of fruit, from which a moſt excellent perfume is extracted. The ſoil produces fourteen ſorts of grain, which the natives feed on, and in ſhort is ſo rich, that many plants bear fruit three times a year. The inland country, eſpecially towards the north, is populous. It is but lately the Spaniards had any ſettlement on this peninſula; and what they have is only a village near Cape Lucar, at the ſouth end of it, which they call California. The Manilla ſhips touch here ſometimes in their courſe to Acapulco, and it is likely to become a conſiderable place in time, by their trading with the Indians for pearl. There are many ſmall iſlands on the coaſt of this peninſula, both in the South and Purple Seas; and it is to be obſerved, that captain Dampier propoſed ſeeking a north-weſt paſſage, by doubling Cape Blanco, the moſt northern part in California.

Britiſh dominions in North America.

All the reſt of North America, except the ſettlement of New Orleans, or Louiſiana, ſome time ſince conſigned over by the French to the Spaniards, make a part, but the far greateſt, of the former Britiſh empire in America; Canada, with its dependencies, having been ceded by the French, and Florida by the Spaniards, to the crown of Great Britain, purſuant to the definitive treaty of peace in 1763. Since that epocha, the rebellion of the North American colonies, and the independence granted them by the late peace, has changed the face of affairs; we ſhall, however, proceed as before, ſuppoſing the Britiſh colonies annexed, as from the beginning, to their mother country. In diſcourſing, therefore, of theſe colonies, we ſhall firſt treat of Florida, and then taking a ſweep along the coaſt, come round to Canada and Louiſiana, with which, and a few reflections, we ſhall conclude whatever of moment has been obſerved in regard to the continent of North America.

Florida.

The country called by the Spaniards Florida, extends, by their accounts, according to the moſt accurate obſervations, from about 25 deg. 6 min. to 39 deg. 38 min. north latitude, and its moſt eaſtern coaſt lies in about 81 deg. 30 min. weſt longitude from London; its whole length being nearly a thouſand Engliſh miles, but the breadth very variable. They extend it on the north to the Apalachian mountains, where it is very narrow, and make the river Altamaha

Altamaha the boundary between it and Georgia, by which they take in the whole country of the Lower Creek Indians. On the north-west, they separate it from Louisiana, by the Rio Perdido. To the east it has Georgia, the Atlantic Ocean, and the channel of Bahama, or gulf of Florida; and to the south, the gulf of Mexico.

Though the Spaniards give the name of Florida to a much greater extent of country than that which we confine it to, calling all the coast lying north of the gulf of Mexico by that appellation; yet whatever the extent may be, the English were the first discoverers of this continent; for Henry VII. king of England, being determined to find out the north-west passage to Cathay and India, took into his service Sebastian Cabot, a very able mariner, and fitted out two caravals for him in 1496; the account of which we shall give in Cabot's own words: "But after certain days, I found that the land run towards the north, which was to me a great displeasure. Nevertheless, sailing along the coast, to see if I could find any gulf that turned, I found the land still continent to the 56th degree under our pole; and seeing that there the coast turned toward the east, despairing to find the passage, I turned back again, and sailed down by the coast of that land towards the equinoctial (ever with an intent to find the said passage to India), and came to that part of this firm land which is now called Florida, where my victuals failing, I departed from thence, and returned into England."

Eighteen years after this discovery of the continent by Sebastian Cabot, John Ponce, of Leon, being discharged from his government of Boriouena, now called Porto Rico, in which he had acquired great riches, fitted out two caravals, in order to discover the islands of Boiuca, in which, the Indians affirmed was a spring, the virtue of whose waters was to restore youth: having wandered in vain for six months, he came by accident to the Biminis, and discovered the land of Florida, in 1512, on Easter-day; which the Spaniards call the flourishing day of Pascha, and from thence gave it the name of Florida.

A country so extensive in latitude must be supposed to vary somewhat in point of air and climate, but it may, upon the whole, be called very warm, though the great heats in the southern parts are much allayed by the cool breezes from the sea; and such as are more inland, towards the north, feel a little of the roughness of the north-west wind, which, more or less, with its chilling breath, prevails over the whole continent of Northern America, and is observed to bring with it, and spread the inclemency

of

of froſt and ſnow many degrees more to the ſouthward in thoſe regions, than the north-eaſt wind does in ours; which, though the coldeſt we feel, yet is of ſhorter duration, as the weſterly winds generally prevail here. Severe cold is commonly known in the winter months on the American continent, ſo low as 34 or 35 deg. of north latitude, which is rather more ſouthern than the ſtraits of Gibraltar in Europe; and large ſhoals of ice are ſeen floating, and the ſea frequently frozen to a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore, in the latitude of 44 or 45 deg. north, which are the ſame parallels under which the ſouthern parts of France lie. This difference in temperature may, perhaps, in a great meaſure, be accounted for by conſidering the amazing extent of uncultivated land, covered with foreſts, and intermixed with vaſt lakes, and marſhes of ſtagnated freſh water, over which the north-weſt wind blowing, meets with no accidental cauſe to mollify its rigour; whereas the ſmaller continent of Europe is broken and interſperſed with many large ſeas and gulfs of ſalt water, which, having a communication with the warmer parts of the main ocean, do, with the motion and formation of their ſaline particles, greatly mellow and ſoften the circumambient air impregnated therewith. But to return; notwithſtanding the climate of Florida is, as we have ſaid, very warm, it is not for that reaſon leſs pure and wholeſome; the beſt teſtimony of which that can be given is the ſize, firmneſs, ſtrength of conſtitution, and longevity of the Floridan Indians: in all theſe particulars they far exceed the Mexicans.

The ſoil of Florida is remarkably rich and fruitful, frequently producing two or three crops of Indian corn in the year, and might, with proper cultivation, be made to bear every ſort of grain. It abounds with all kinds of timber, particularly pines, cedar, palms, laurel, cypreſs, and cheſnut-trees; but, above all, ſaſſafras is found in the greateſt plenty; excellent limes and plums alſo grow here in great abundance, with many other fruits of delicious flavour; vines likewiſe, of various ſorts, are the natural product of the country, and the land is thought to be as proper for the cultivation of the grape as thoſe of Europe are found in general to be. Cotton alſo grows wild here in great abundance; hemp and flax are likewiſe very common. The many rivers with which Florida is watered render it fertile. The ſea-coaſt is very flat, ſandy, and full of ſhoals: on this level ſhore there are prodigious numbers of oyſters adhering to the mangrove-trees, with which the ſouthern coaſt is covered.

Animal

Animal food is plenty here, and very good in its kind, particularly beef, mutton, and veal. The country alſo feeds great numbers of ſwine, the fleſh of which is very good, there being no want of acorns, cheſnuts, and ſuch nouriſhment as proper for theſe creatures. Their cattle have a kind of long black hair upon them, ſo fine that, with a little mixture, it is thought by ſome capable of being manufactured into hats, cloathing, &c. Horſes are alſo bred here very good both for the ſaddle and draught, and ſo cheap that one of them may be purchaſed for any trifle that is brought from Europe.

The wild animals found in this country are the panther, bear, catamountain, ſtag, goat, hare, rabbet, beaver, otter, fox, racoon, and ſquirrel. The rivers abound with ſnakes and alligators. Birds are here in great plenty, ſuch as partridges, jays, pigeons, turtle-doves, thruſhes, crows, hawks, herons, cranes, geeſe, ducks, and an infinite number of others, ſome of which have their plumage moſt elegantly variegated.

Among its more precious productions cochineal may be reckoned, of which there is both the wild and the cultivated, but the latter is by far the more valuable. The indigo plant alſo grows plentifully in many of the ſouthern parts of this province. Ambergriſe too is frequently to be met with on the coaſt, from Porta de Ianche, the moſt ſouthern cape of Florida, as far as Mexico.

The native Indians of Florida are of an olive complexion, their bodies robuſt and finely proportioned; both ſexes go naked, excepting that they faſten a piece of deer-ſkin about their middle. They ſtain their ſkins with the juice of plants. Their hair is black and long, and they have a method of twiſting it about their heads, ſo as to make it look very graceful. Their weapons are bows and arrows, which they manage with great dexterity; the ſtrings of their bows are made of the ſinews of ſtags, and they arm the points of their arrows with the teeth of fiſhes, or ſharpened ſtones. The women are very handſome and well ſhaped, and withal ſo active, that they will ſwim acroſs broad rivers with their children on their backs, or climb, with ſurprizing agility, to the tops of the higheſt trees. In religion they are bigotted idolaters, worſhipping the ſun and moon, and bearing an extreme averſion to all Chriſtians; which, indeed, is not to be wondered at, ſince the horrid cruelties exerciſed by the Spaniards upon the natives of the adjacent iſland of Cuba, and other places, even to extirpation, could not fail to excite the utmoſt abhorrence

horrence and dread of them in thoſe ſavages, inſtead of recommending to them the purity of Chriſtianity.

The chief ſettlements the Spaniards ever made in this country, were at St. Auguſtine and St. Mattheo. Penſacola, ſituated in 30 deg. 25 min. north latitude, is chiefly frequented by our ſhipping. Its road is one of the beſt in all the gulf of Mexico, in which veſſels can lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind. The bottom, which is ſandy, mixed in many places with ooze, is excellent for anchorage: the ſea is never agitated here, becauſe the land ſurrounds it on every ſide; but the tides are irregular here as well as upon all the reſt of the coaſt.

The colony of Florida is ſtill in an indifferent, if not diſtreſſed ſtate, and chiefly on account of the unavoidable miſchiefs of the late war; but conſiderable matters were in time expected from it. Two governors were aſſigned it; one for Eaſt, the other for Weſt Florida.

Next to Florida, lie Georgia and Carolina, which laſt is divided into North and South. By the definitive treaty of peace in 1763, the boundaries may be ſaid to be altered; it being agreed, in conſequence of the ſeventh article, that for the future, "the confines between the dominions of his Britannic majeſty, and thoſe of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty in that part of the world, ſhall be fixed irrevocably, by a line drawn along the middle of the river Miſſiſſipi, from its ſource to the river Iberville, and from thence, by a line drawn along the middle of this river, and the lakes of Maurepas and Portchartrain, to the ſea; and for this purpoſe, the moſt Chriſtian king cedes in full right, and guarantees to his Britannic majeſty, the river and port of the Mobile, and every thing which he poſſeſſes, or ought to poſſeſs, on the left ſide of the river Miſſiſſipi, except the town of New Orleans, and the iſland in which it is ſituated, which ſhall remain to France." *Carolina and Georgia.*

The face of theſe countries is low and level, not a hill being to be ſeen from St. Auguſtine to Virginia, and it is generally covered with wood, where the planters have not cleared it. But about one hundred miles weſt of the coaſt the country riſes gradually to the Apalachian mountains, which are about a hundred and fifty miles diſtant from the Atlantic Ocean. This ocean is ſo ſhallow near the coaſt, that a ſhip of any great burden cannot approach it, except in ſome few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the beſt are thoſe of Roanoak, at the mouth of Albermarle River, and Pimlico. In South Carolina there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George Town, Charles Town, and Port Royal. In Georgia, the mouths

mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha, form good harbours.

Carolina is ſituate between the extremities of heat and cold; but the heat is more troubleſome in ſummer, than the cold in winter. The vegetables are innumerable, for all that grow in Europe grow here, not to mention many that cannot ſtand our winters. The country has, and would produce ſilk, wine, and oil, if properly cultivated; mulberry-trees and grapes grow ſpontaneouſly, and the ſoil is extremely proper for olives. We have had ſamples of their ſilk brought over, equal to any we purchaſe of foreigners. Georgia, the moſt ſouthern province, is not a fruitful country; but having ſeveral fine rivers running through it, the banks of them are fortified, and make a very good barrier for the Carolinas, which were before expoſed to the incurſions and ravages of the Spaniards and their Indian allies.

Among the native animals they have the urus, which the Engliſh improperly call a buffalo. The other native animals are the ſame as in Mexico and Florida; and the European cattle are greatly increaſed here, as well as in other plantations. The wool of their ſheep is not inferior to the Engliſh. Poultry and other fowls are in great plenty.

The Engliſh traffic with the Indians for deer-ſkins, and bear and buffalo-ſkins, for which they give them guns, powder, knives, ſciſſars, looking-glaſſes, beads, and ſome coarſe cloth and duffils. Theſe are carried on pack-horſes five or ſix hundred miles into the country, weſt of Charles Town; but moſt of the trade is confined within the limits of the Creek and Cherokee nations, which do not lie above three hundred miles from the coaſt.

The chief commodities ſhipped off from Carolina yearly, are great quantities of rice, deer-ſkins, pitch and tar, turpentine, and indigo, which laſt thrives better here than in any of our other plantations.

Carolina was the laſt country in America planted by the Engliſh, after ſir Walter Raleigh's unfortunate attempts to fix colonies in Carolina, in the latter end of the reign of queen Elizabeth. It ſeems to have been entirely overlooked till the reſtoration of Charles II. The then miniſtry being informed that Carolina would produce wine, oil, and ſilk, and almoſt every thing that England wanted, procured a patent or grant to themſelves, dated the 24th of March, 1663, of great part of this coaſt; the grantees being Edward, earl of Clarendon, lord chancellor; George, duke of Albemarle, the general; William, lord Craven; John

John, lord Berkeley; the lord Anthony Aſhley Cooper; ſir George Carteret, ſir William Colleton, and their heirs. Theſe proprietors, however, did little towards planting it, until the year 1670, when lord Aſhley ſtruck out a whimſical kind of government for the colony, creating a palatine or ſovereign, with a council to be a check upon him; which involved them in perpetual quarrels, and almoſt deſtroyed the plantation as ſoon as it was ſettled; to prevent which, they were at length obliged to ſell their ſhares to the crown: and it was afterwards a royal government, only the late earl of Granville thought fit to retain his ſeventh ſhare.

Virginia.

Virginia borders upon Carolina, which is its ſouth boundary; its other boundaries being the river Patowmack, which divides it from Maryland on the north-eaſt; the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt; and the Apalachian Mountains on the weſt. It is computed to be about two hundred and forty miles in length, and two hundred in breadth. As we approach it from the ocean, it appears to be low land; and for one hundred miles up into the country, there is ſcarce a hill or ſtone to be met with. Before being planted, it conſiſted of foreſts, bogs, and moraſſes, which laſt the people in the Weſt Indies call ſwamps, and ſuch the greateſt part of it is at preſent. Their trees are much loftier than ours, and no underwood or buſhes grow beneath. People travel with eaſe through theſe foreſts on horſeback, and never want a fine ſhade to defend them from the ſummer heats. The air and ſeaſons depend very much on the wind, as to heat and cold, dryneſs, and moiſture; the north and north-weſt winds are very nitrous, piercing cold, and clear, or elſe ſtormy; the ſouth-eaſt and ſouth, hazy and ſultry hot: in winter, they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleaſant; their froſts are ſhort, but ſometimes ſo very ſharp that it will freeze the rivers over three miles broad. Snow falls ſometimes in pretty great quantities, but rarely continues above a day or two; their ſpring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; May and June the heat increaſes, and the ſummer is much like ours, being mitigated with gentle breezes, that riſe about nine o'clock, and decreaſe and increaſe as the ſun riſes and falls. July and Auguſt thoſe breezes ceaſe, and the air becomes ſtagnant; then the heat is violent and troubleſome. In September the weather uſually breaks ſuddenly, and heavy rains fall, when many fall ſick; this being the time for fluxes, ſcorbutic dropſies, gripes, or the like.

The

The great bay of Cheſapeak runs up through Virginia and Maryland, almoſt due north, three hundred miles and upwards, being navigable moſt part of the way for large ſhips. We enter this bay between two promontories, called Cape Charles and Cape Henry. Into the weſt ſide of the ſame bay fall four great rivers, which riſe in the Apalachian mountains, running from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt; the moſt ſoutherly of theſe is James River, generally about two miles over, and navigable at leaſt eighty miles. A little to the northward of this is York River, and north of York River is that of Rappahanock; and farther north is the great river of Patowmack, which is navigable near two hundred miles, and nine miles broad, in ſome places, but generally about ſeven.

No country produces greater quantities of excellent tobacco, and yet Virginia is generally a ſandy land, with a very ſhallow ſoil; ſo that after they have cleared a freſh piece of ground out of the woods, it will not bear tobacco above two or three years, unleſs cow-penned, or well dunged. Of ſpontaneous flowers there are a great variety; the fineſt crown-imperial in the world; the cardinal flower, ſo much extolled for its ſcarlet colour; and almoſt all the year round the plains and vallies are adorned with flowers of one kind or other. There is alſo found the fine tulip-bearing laurel-tree, which has the pleaſanteſt ſmell imaginable, and keeps bloſſoming and ſeeding ſeveral months together. Silk graſs grows ſpontaneous in many places; and its fibres being as fine as flax, and much ſtronger than hemp, how great muſt be the advantages of ſo uſeful a plant? The woods produce great variety of frankincenſe and ſweet gums, which diſtil from ſeveral trees. All ſorts of naval ſtores may be produced there, as pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, plank-timber, maſts and yards, beſides ſails, cordage, and iron; and all theſe may be tranſported to different parts by eaſy water-carriage. Their animals are generally the ſame as thoſe already enumerated in Florida and Carolina.

Some attempts were made by ſir Walter Raleigh and others to ſettle colonies here, and at Carolina, in the reign of queen Elizabeth; but all of them through neglect proved ineffectual, till king James I. by his letters patent, dated the 10th of April, 1606, authorized ſir Thomas Gates, ſir George Summers, Richard Hackluit, clerk, prebendary of Weſtminſter, and other adventurers, to plant the coaſt of Virginia between 35 and 45 deg. of north latitude. Hereupon, having fitted out three ſmall ſhips, they

they ſet ſail from the Downs the 5th of January, 1606-7, and on the 16th of April, 1607, arrived in the bay of Cheſapeak, and ſailing up the river Powhatan, now James River, they landed on a peninſula about fifty miles up the river, where they built a fort, and afterwards a town, which they called James Town, in honour of king James I. This was the firſt town built by the Engliſh on the continent of America. There happened ſome ſkirmiſhes between the Engliſh and the natives at their landing; but the fear of fire-arms brought the latter to a pretended reconciliation, waiting, however, for an opportunity of falling upon theſe ſtrangers, when they ſhould meet an advantage. The fort being finiſhed, captain Newport, who commanded the expedition, returned to England on the 22d of June, 1607, leaving a hundred and four men in the new ſettlement. The garriſon ſoon finding themſelves in want of proviſions, and the natives refuſing to furniſh them with any, though they offered to give the full value for them, the Engliſh found themſelves under the neceſſity of plundering the country; upon which an open war commenced between them and the natives. However, freſh ſupplies and reinforcements coming over, commanded by the lord Delawar, the Indians were glad to enter into a treaty of peace, during which, the Engliſh finding a great demand for tobacco in Europe, began to encourage the planting of it, in which they ſucceeded beyond their expectations; and at the ſame time ſir George Yardley, the governor, eſtabliſhed a government reſembling that of England, and the firſt general aſſembly, or parliament, met at James Town in May, 1620; and Negroes were firſt imported into Virginia the ſame year. The planters not long after falling out among themſelves, the Indians took advantage of their diviſions, and made different attempts to recover their country, killing great numbers of the Engliſh by ſurprize. Theſe misfortunes being aſcribed to the mal-adminiſtration of the company, king Charles I. diſſolved them in the year 1626, and reduced the government of Virginia under his own immediate direction, appointing the governor and council himſelf, ordering all patents and proceſs to iſſue in the king's name, and reſerving a quit-rent of two ſhillings for every hundred acres of land. After this regulation, there were other parties and factions again, and the Indians made new efforts to recover their liberties. The prudence of ſir William Berkeley, the governor, compoſed theſe diſſenſions, and having afterwards made peace with the Indians, he promoted manufactures of ſilk and linen in this plantation, and was in all reſpects eſteemed as an excellent governor; but the act of navigation, reſtraining the plant-

ers from sending their merchandize to foreign countries, and from receiving cloathing, furniture, or supplies, from any nation but England, having created a great deal of discontent, Mr. Bacon, a popular, factious gentleman, took advantage of their disaffection, and setting up for himself, drew the people into rebellion, deposed the governor, and compelled him to fly to the eastern shore of the bay of Chesapeak; and had not Bacon died in good time, he had probably made himself sovereign of Virginia. Upon his death sir William returned to his government, and the people to their duty, since which there have been no material alterations in the state of Virginia; but they have neglected making silk, wine, and every other branch of business for which the soil and climate seemed proper, and employed themselves solely in the planting and curing of tobacco.

Maryland. Maryland, adjoining Virginia, a little higher up the coast, is bounded by Pensylvania, on the north; by another part of Pensylvania, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by Virginia, on the south; and by the Apalachian Mountains on the west. It is about a hundred and forty miles in length, and one hundred and thirty-five in breadth; and, as well as Virginia, may be divided into the lowlands next the sea, the hilly country towards the heads of the rivers, and the Apalachian Mountains beyond, which are exceeding high. The rivers are here capable of receiving large ships, which, with the numerous bays and creeks that indent the land on every side, give the seamen an opportunity of bringing their vessels up to the planters doors to receive their freights. The air of this country is excessive hot some part of the summer, and equally cold in winter, when the north-west wind blows. Their winters are not of more than three or four months duration, and in these they seldom have one month of bad weather; all the rest they are happy in a clear air, and bright sun, and are scarce ever troubled with fogs. Tobacco is planted and cultivated here with as much application as in Virginia, and their principal traffic with England is in this article; though the country produces most of the grain and fruits of Europe and America. The planters live in farms, dispersed all over the country, chiefly near the banks of rivers, or on the sea coast. They seem to have an aversion to reside in towns here, as well as in Virginia, or rather they find it more convenient for the management of their plantations.

Maryland was discovered in the year 1606, when Virginia was first planted, and for some time was esteemed a part of Virginia, till king Charles I. in 1632, granted all that part of Virginia which lay north of Patowmac River,

ver, and was not then planted, to the right hon. Cecilius Calvert, lord Baltimore, of the kingdom of Ireland, and to his heirs; which was afterwards named Maryland, in honour of the queen-conſort, Henrietta Maria. The Baltimore family were deprived of the government of this province during the civil wars in England, but recovered it again on the reſtoration of king Charles II. and they ſtill remain proprietors. The eſtate enjoyed by them here is one of the moſt conſiderable of any ſubject of Great Britain abroad. The firſt adventurers being Roman catholic gentlemen, followed by many families of that perſuaſion, who came over from England to avoid the penal laws, moſt of the planters ſtill profeſs that religion. They were conſtantly, from the beginning, upon good terms with the Indians, and this ſoon occaſioned the colony to be in a very flouriſhing condition.

Penſylvania, New York, and the Jerſeys.

From Maryland we may proceed to Penſylvania and New York, with the Jerſeys. The firſt is bounded by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the north; by Delaware River, which divides it from the Jerſeys, on the eaſt; and by Maryland, on the ſouth and weſt; being two hundred miles in length, and the ſame in breadth. The coaſt is flat near the ſea, like the adjacent colonies, but riſes gradually, having the Apalachian Mountains on the weſt.

New York, with the Jerſeys, are bounded by Canada on the north; by New England on the eaſt; by the American Sea on the ſouth; and by Delaware River, which divides them from Penſylvania, on the weſt. The ſouth part of New York, and the Jerſeys, are low flat countries, but aſcending twenty or thirty miles up Hudſon's River to the north, the country is rocky and mountainous, and covered with wood, where it has not been cleared by the planters.

The merchandize of theſe plantations conſiſts of horſes, pipe-ſtaves, pork, beef, and fiſh, ſalted and barrelled up; ſkins and furs; all ſorts of grain, as wheat, rye, peaſe, oats, barley, buck-wheat, Indian corn, Indian peaſe and beans, pot-aſhes, wax, &c. with which they ſupply the ſugar colonies, and in return import from them and other places, rum, ſugar, molaſſes, ſilver, Negroes, ſalt, and wine; and from Great Britain, houſehold goods, clothing of all kinds, hardware, tools, and toys. They traffic alſo with the logwood-cutters in the bay of Honduras, and clandeſtinely with the Spaniſh ſettlements, exchanging the manufactures of Europe for treaſure, which they ſend to England as merchandize; of their dried and ſalted fiſh they export a great deal to Spain, Portugal, Italy, and

other countries of Europe, and of late great quantities of timber to the ſame places, which is become to them a very profitable branch of buſineſs. Their trade with the Indians conſiſts but in few articles; they receive of the natives chiefly ſkins and furs of their wild beaſts, for which they give them clothing, arms, ammunition, rum, and other ſpirits, in return. Penſylvania, the Jerſeys, and New York, appear extremely proper to produce hemp and flax, where they are cultivated.

Sir Walter Raleigh was the firſt adventurer that attempted to plant colonies on theſe ſhores, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and, in honour of that princeſs, gave all the eaſtern coaſt of North America the name of Virginia. Mr. Hudſon, an Engliſhman, ſailing to that part of the coaſt which lies between Virginia and New England, in the beginning of the reign of king James I. and being about to make a ſettlement at the mouth of Hudſon's River, the Dutch gave him a ſum of money to diſpoſe of his intereſt in this country to them, and in the year 1608 began to plant it, and by virtue of this purchaſe laid claim to all thoſe countries which are now denominated New York, New Jerſey, and Penſylvania; but as ſome part of this coaſt remained, which was not planted by the Hollanders, the Swedes ſent a fleet of ſhips thither, and took poſſeſſion of it for that crown; but the Dutch having a ſuperior force in that neighbourhood, compelled the Swedes to ſubmit to their dominion, allowing them, however, to enjoy the plantations they had ſettled. The Engliſh not admitting that either the Hollander or the Swede had any right to countries firſt diſcovered and planted by a ſubject of England, and part of them at that time poſſeſſed by the ſubjects of Great Britain, under charters from queen Elizabeth and king James I. king Charles II. during the firſt Dutch war in 1664, granted the countries of New York, the Jerſeys, and Penſylvania, the Dutch had uſurped the poſſeſſion of, to his brother James, duke of York; and ſir Robert Car being ſent over with a ſquadron of men of war and land-forces, and ſummoning the Dutch governor of the city of New Amſterdam (now New York), to ſurrender, he thought fit to obey the ſummons, and yield that capital to the Engliſh. The reſt of the places in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch and the Swedes followed his example, and theſe countries were confirmed to the Engliſh by the Dutch, at the next treaty of peace between the two nations. The duke of York afterwards parcelled out theſe countries to under-proprietors, among whom William Penn, ſon of ſir William Penn, admiral in the Dutch wars, was one

one. All the reſt of the under-proprietors, ſome time after, ſurrendered their charter to the crown, whereby New York and the Jerſeys became royal governments; but Penn retained that part of the country which had been granted to him; and king Charles II. having made him another grant in 1680, of the reſt of that country which now conſtitutes the reſt of Penſylvania, he began to plant them in the year 1681. The Dutch and Swediſh inhabitants chuſing ſtill to reſide in this country, as they did in New York and the Jerſeys, they and their deſcendants enjoy the ſame privileges as the reſt of the Britiſh inhabitants in theſe plantations do, and are now in a manner the ſame people with the Engliſh, ſpeaking their language, and being governed by their laws and cuſtoms. Mr. Penn, however, notwithſtanding the grants made by the crown and the duke of York, did not eſteem himſelf the real proprietor of the lands granted him, till he had given the Indians a valuable conſideration, or what they eſteemed ſuch, for their country: he aſſembled, therefore, their ſachems or princes, and purchaſed countries of a very large extent of them, for a very moderate price, as they made ſcarce any other uſe of their country, than to hunt in it. He paid them for it in cloth, tools, and utenſils, to the entire ſatisfaction of the natives, who ſtill retained more lands than they could poſſibly uſe, being very few in number. Penſylvania is now one of the moſt flouriſhing colonies in North America, having never had any quarrel with the natives. Whenever they deſire to extend their ſettlements, they purchaſe new lands of the ſachems, never taking any thing from them by force.

The air and ſeaſons in Penſylvania, New York, and the Jerſeys, are ſomewhat milder than in

New England.

New England, which comprehends the colonies of the Maſſachuſets, New Hampſhire, Connecticut, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantation; and is ſituated between 67 and 73 deg. of weſt longitude, and between 41 and 45 deg. of north latitude, bounded by Canada on the north-weſt; by Nova Scotia, or Acadia, on the north-eaſt; by the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt and ſouth; and by the province of New York on the weſt; being three hundred miles long, and from a hundred to two hundred broad. The land near the ſea is generally low, but farther up the country riſes into hills, and on the north-eaſt is rocky and mountainous. The north and north-weſt winds blowing over a long tract of frozen country, are exceſſive cold, which makes the winters here much ſeverer and longer than in Old England, the ground being alſo covered with ſnow, and the ſhipping

on the coaſt frozen up ſeveral months; but then the weather is more conſtant, and not variable as in Old England, and the ſhort ſummer much hotter: the climate, too, appears to be as healthy as in any of our American plantations.

The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples; but Engliſh wheat not thriving ſo well, the inhabitants make uſe chiefly of maize, or Indian corn, one grain of which frequently produces twelve hundred grains, and ſometimes two thouſand. This corn is of three ſeveral colours, blue, white, and yellow. Beſides the foreſt-trees of Old England, they have cedar, cypreſs, pine, and fir-trees, which laſt are of a prodigious bulk, and they draw from theſe, and other trees, pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the ſoil is proper for hemp and flax.

The animals which ſeem almoſt peculiar to New England and the reſt of North America are, the mooſe-deer and the beaver; but they have now almoſt all European animals in as great perfection and plenty as we have them here. The ſpermaceti whale is found upon this coaſt, of which, and other whales, they take great numbers, and ſend ſome ſhips every year to fiſh for whales in Greenland: hence it is that we receive all the whale-bone and whale-oil we import, except what we purchaſe of the Dutch and Hamburghers.

As ſhips may be built and rigged out with the produce of the ſoil, ſhip-building is become a conſiderable employment in this country. They alſo manufacture coarſe linen and woollen cloth for their own uſe; and not long ſince have ventured upon other manufactures, as hats, paper, ſugar-baking, and diſtilling. They have a great trade by ſea to the Britiſh ſugar colonies, and with the Dutch at Surinam and Curaſſou, near Terra Firma, whither they ſend horſes, ſalt proviſions, and lumber. They alſo ſend ſhips to the bay of Honduras for logwood, which they tranſport to Europe; as they do ſugar from the Weſt Indies, and fiſh from Newfoundland.

There was no attempt made to ſettle New England till the reign of king James I. who by letters patent dated the 10th of April, 1606, erected two companies, empowering them to ſend colonies to Virginia, as all the north-eaſt coaſt of America was then called. One of theſe companies was called the Plymouth company, who for ſome time traded only with the natives of North Virginia, or New England, for furs, and fiſhed upon the coaſt. About the

year

year 1619 ſome diſſenters of the independent perſuaſion, who were uneaſy at being required to conform to the church of England, having purchaſed the Plymouth patent, and obtained another from king James to ſend colonies to North Virginia, now New England, embarked a hundred and fifty men on board a ſhip, which ſailed from Plymouth the 6th of September, 1620, and arrived at Cape Cod, in New England, on the 9th of November following, where they built a town, and called it by the name of New Plymouth. The Indians were at this time too much engaged in wars among themſelves, to give theſe ſtrangers any diſturbance; and, luckily for them Maſſaſſoit, prince of the Maſſachuſet nation, entered into an alliance, offenſive and defenſive, with the Engliſh, by whoſe aſſiſtance he hoped to make a conqueſt of the Narraganſet nation, with which he was then at war. He alſo conſented to acknowlege the king of England his ſovereign, and made a ceſſion of part of his country to the new planters. Several other princes followed his example. Ships arriving every day almoſt, with planters and proviſions, the colony ſoon became well eſtabliſhed, when differences ariſing upon account of religion, had like to have been of very bad conſequence. The Independents, who were the moſt numerous, not allowing a toleration to any other ſect or perſuaſion, ſeveral of the adventurers removed to other parts of the country, and others returned home, whereby the colony was ſo weakened, that if the Indians had not been engaged in civil war, the Engliſh would infallibly have been driven out of the country. In the mean time another ſet of adventurers, in 1627, purchaſed a grant of the Plymouth company, of all that part of New England which lies between the rivers Merimac and Charles; and, to ſtrengthen their title, procured a grant of it from king Charles, in 1628. This new company fitted out ſix ſhips, with three hundred planters, furniſhed with live cattle, and all manner of ſtores and proviſions. In 1630 they built Boſton on the Maſſachuſet Bay, now the capital of New England. The ſame year king Charles granted part of the country of Connecticut to the earl of Warwick, which was afterwards purchaſed of that earl by William, lord viſcount Say and Sele; Robert, lord Brook; ſir Nathaniel Rich; Charles Fiennes, John Pym, and John Hampden, eſqrs. gentlemen at that time diſaffected to the government, who deſigned that plantation as a place of refuge, in caſe they had not ſucceeded in their oppoſition to king Charles; and they were once upon the point of tranſporting themſelves thither, with the chief of their party, being in doubt whether

they ſhould carry their point in the ſenate: even Oliver Cromwell, it is ſaid, was once on board, in order to have tranſported himſelf to New England; and there appears to have been a proclamation publiſhed in 1637, prohibiting people to tranſport themſelves without licence, whereby Cromwell, ſir Arthur Haſelrig, Mr. Hampden, and ſeveral more, were prevented going; but prevailing afterwards againſt the crown, they ſold their intereſt in the plantations to others. Another ſet of adventurers planted New Hampſhire, and others Providence and Rhode Iſland, the laſt being chiefly Quakers, driven out of the Maſſachuſet colony by the Independents, who had long perſecuted them, and actually hanged ſome of the Quakers for not conforming to their ſect: thus all the New England provinces were planted and well peopled within the ſpace of twenty years, reckoning from the arrival of the firſt colony at New Plymouth, during which time they were very little interrupted by the Indians; but the Engliſh colony of Connecticut beginning to erect fortreſſes, and extend their ſettlements to the weſtward, without leave of the natives, the Indians were alarmed, apprehending they ſhould in time be diſpoſſeſſed of their country, and enſlaved by theſe foreigners. The ſachem Metacomet, therefore (to whom the Engliſh gave the name of Philip), the ſon of Maſſaſſoit, who firſt entered into an alliance with the Engliſh, obſerving the danger his country was in, and that the Engliſh now no longer acted as allies, but tyrannized over his people, and had in a manner deprived him of his authority, diſpatched meſſengers privately through all the tribes of the Indians, inviting them to take up arms in defence of their country, which they did, and ſucceeded in ſeveral engagements at firſt, but their prince Philip being killed by a muſket-ſhot, the Engliſh at length prevailed. Great numbers of the Indians were maſſacred, and others were driven out of their country, and joined the French in Canada, who promiſing them protection, and frequently aſſiſting them in their invaſion of the Britiſh ſettlements, it is no wonder that they afterwards remained attached to the French intereſt.

The four provinces into which New England is divided have different conſtitutions, and generally different governors. The province of the Maſſachuſets, comprehending New Plymouth and Maine, were included in the ſame charter. New Hampſhire had another charter, and was a diſtinct government. Connecticut and Newhaven were included in a third charter. Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantation had another charter, and no dependence on any

of

of the reſt. As to the conſtitution of the Maſſachuſets colony the crown appointed the governor, and all the officers of the admiralty; and the power of the militia was entirely in the hands of the governor, as captain-general. All the judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, were nominated by the governor and council, and the governor had a negative in the choice of any member of the council; all laws of the general aſſembly were ſent to England to receive the approbation of the crown, and no act of government was valid without the governor's conſent in writing. As to the colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Iſland, though their governments were diſtinct and independent of each other, yet their conſtitution was much the ſame, for each were impowered, by their reſpective charters, to elect their own governor, deputy-governor, council, and aſſembly; to appoint officers both civil and military; and to make laws for the government of their reſpective colonies. As to the the colony of New Hampſhire, is was immediately dependent on the crown; the king appointed their governor, lieutenant-governor, council, magiſtrates, and officers; but the freemen elected their repreſentatives, or lower-houſe, as in Old England; but the laws in all the colonies were liable to be altered and repealed by the parliament of Great Britain. From whence it appears, that the Maſſachuſet colony, which is the chief of the New England colonies, had a different conſtitution from any of the reſt. There was a mixture in it of the royal and the charter governments; for though the king appointed the governor, he depended on the general aſſembly for his ſubſiſtence, and the general aſſembly choſe the council, which is equivalent to our houſe of lords; but then the governor could reject any member of the council, choſen by the lower houſe; and the power of the militia, and the collection of the cuſtoms, were entirely in the crown.

New Scotland.

Beſides a New England, there is a New Scotland in America, commonly called by its Latin name, Nova Scotia, and by the French Acadie. It is bounded by the river of St. Lawrence, on the north; by the bay of St. Lawrence, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the eaſt; by the ſame ocean and New England, on the ſouth; and by Canada, on the weſt. It is computed to be five hundred miles in length, and four hundred in breadth. Great part of this country is ſtill a foreſt; but where cleared and cultivated, it affords good corn and paſture. The timber is fit for building, and will produce pitch and tar; and the ſoil is proper for hemp and flax, ſo that all manner of naval ſtores might he had here. There is alſo at preſent a plenty of European cattle; but any deficiency may be readily ſupplied

plied by the great abundance of deer, wild fowl, all manner of game, and the fineſt cod-fiſheries in the world on the coaſt.

In the year 1690, ſir William Phipps, governor of New England, raiſed an army, which he tranſported to Nova Scotia, and took Port Royal, or Annapolis, from the French; and reduced another French ſettlement at the mouth of St. John's river, in the bay of Fundy, of which the Engliſh kept poſſeſſion till the peace of Ryſwick, in 1697, when king William thought fit to cede them to France, notwithſtanding they belonged to Great Britain originally; but Annapolis, with all Nova Scotia, was reſtored to Great Britain, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1714. A regiment was then ſent over to take poſſeſſion of Annapolis, the capital, but no proviſion was made to plant the reſt of Nova Scotia till the year 1749, when about three thouſand Engliſh families, under the command of governor Cornwallis, were ſent thither, and erected the town of Halifax in Chebucto Bay; and ſince that ſeveral other embarkations have been made, ſo that there are not leſs than five or ſix thouſand inhabitants there at preſent. In the late war, one of the diſputes between Great Britain and France, was not whether Nova Scotia was yielded to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, but what were the bounds of Nova Scotia, which the Britiſh commiſſaries demonſtrated to extend to the river of St. Lawrence, on the north, by ſeveral treaties between the two nations: whereas the French inſiſted, that only part of the peninſula was ceded to Great Britain, being then, indeed, poſſeſſed of the north part of Nova Scotia, which is near three parts of the whole. The Engliſh commiſſaries obſerved alſo, that part of the French in Nova Scotia ſwore allegiance to the crown of Great Britain, and the reſt of them removed to Quebec, capital of the French ſettlements in Canada, ſoon after the peace of Utrecht; but it appearing that the French, who remained in Nova Scotia, not regarding their oaths to the king of Great Britain, conſtantly adhered to France, it was thought fit to remove them from thence, and diſperſe them in the reſt of the Britiſh plantations.

New Britain.

The laſt place that remained in North America to the Engliſh before the late war, is the country called New Britain, or Eſkimaux, and Britiſh Canada, comprehending Hudſon's Bay. It is bounded by unknown lands about the pole, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, and Baffin's Bay, on the weſt; by the bay and river of St. Lawrence, and Canada on the ſouth; and by unknown lands on the weſt: being about one thouſand ſix hundred miles in length, and one thouſand two hundred in breadth; but if we ſhould extend it as far as our mariners have diſcovered

to the north, we might make a line drawn through 81½ degrees, the northern boundary; for captain Hudſon ſailed as high as 81½, in the year 1607, and captain Baffin as far in the year 1623 and 1624.

There are very high mountains in the north, which being perpetually covered with ſnow, and the wind blowing from thence three-fourths of the year, is one occaſion of that exceſſive cold which is found on this continent, beyond any thing that has been known on the eaſtern continent, under the ſame parallels of latitude.

The principal ſettlements belonging to our Hudſon's Bay company are, Churchil, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, on the weſt ſide of Hudſon's Bay, and the forts Charles and Rupert at the bottom of the bay. The lands near the ſouth end or bottom of the bay produce large timber, and plenty of herbage, and it is preſumed would produce corn, if cultivated; but towards the north there are few vegetables. The country about fort Nelſon is a low marſhy ſoil, producing juniper, birch, poplar, and ſmall wood of the ſpruce or fir kind, and the ſurface produces chiefly moſs; neither corn nor paſture is to be expected in the north, where the earth, even in ſummer, remains frozen ſix feet deep, and the mountains are perpetually covered with ſnow. The ſoil of New Britain, or the eaſtern ſhore of Eſkimaux, is much the ſame as that on the weſtern ſide of the bay, under the ſame parallels. The north part of Eſkimaux is uſually called Terra de Labrador.

The animals in this country are the mooſe-deer or elk, ſtags, rein-deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martens, ſquirrels, wild cats, and hares: of the feathered kind, geeſe, buſtards, ducks, patridges, and all manner of wild-fowl: of fiſh, whales, morſes, ſeals, cod-fiſh, and a white fiſh preferable to herrings; and in the rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. The foxes, hares, and partridges turn white in the winter; the partridges are as large as hens. There have been taken at port Nelſon, in one ſeaſon, ninety thouſand partridges, and twenty-five thouſand hares.

The food of the Indians is chiefly what they take in hunting or fiſhing. The Engliſh kill beef, pork, mutton, and veniſon, at the beginning of the winter. Theſe are preſerved by the froſt ſix or ſeven months free from putrefaction. Alſo geeſe, partridges, and other fowls, killed at the ſame time, are hung up with their feathers on, and guts in, yet hold good all the winter. In lakes and ſtanding waters, which are not ten feet deep, the water is frozen to the bottom and the fiſh killed; but in waters of greater depth, and

rivers

rivers near the sea, the fish are caught all the winter, by cutting holes in the ice, to which they come for air. As soon as they are taken out of the water, they are immediately frozen and stiff, but may be thawed again by being immersed in cold water; and thus it is that the salt provisions are thawed and freshened here: the meat is let down through a hole in the ice into the water, and in a little time it becomes soft and pliable, as if it never was frozen, and eats very well; whereas if roasted or boiled when frozen, it will be spoiled, and eat as if it was rotten.

A thousand Indian men, and some women, in about six hundred canoes, come down usually at port Nelson to trade with the English. They seem to come from far distant countries, and are much delayed in their voyages, by being obliged to go on shore every day to hunt for provisions; for their canoes are so small, holding only two men and a pack of one hundred beaver skins, that they cannot carry much provision with them. These Indians are of the usual stature of other men, and of a tawny complection. In the north of Eskimaux, there is a race (as observed in treating of America in general,) much whiter, enemies to the southern Indians, and may be supposed to come from Greenland.

The eastern shores of this country were first discovered by Sebastian Cabot, for Henry VII. king of England, in the year 1498, and afterwards visited by Davis and other British mariners. Mr. Hudson made four voyages thither, between the years 1607 and 1611; in the last of which his men forced him and eight more of their officers into a boat, and left them to starve in the bottom of the bay, and they were never heard of more; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home. Sir Thomas Button pursued the discovery in 1612, and captain James in 1631, in hopes of finding a north-west passage to China. Captain Gilham failed to the bottom of the bay in 1667, and at his return his owners procured a patent for planting this country in 1670. The first English governor who went thither was Charles Batley, esq. who built a fort on Rupert River, calling it Charles Fort, and soon after settled another factory at Nelson. In the year 1684, the chief English factory was at Albany, and a fort erected for its defence. The French invaded our settlements, and took fort Rupert and Albany, in July, 1686, though we were then at peace with France. In king William's war of 1693, the English recovered their settlements again. During the war in queen Anne's reign, the French reduced all our settlements except Albany, but were obliged to restore them at the peace of Utrecht

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in 1714, and the company have ſince remained in the poſſeſſion of them.

We are now to return ſouthwards to give an account of Canada and Louiſiana, the former of which the Britiſh arms made an entire conqueſt of in the late war; and the ſame was ceded and guarantied in full right to the crown of Great Britain, by the fourth article of the definitive treaty of peace. It is ſtyled by us in an act of parliament, fixing its boundaries, the province of Quebec from its capital; but as geographers do not agree in aſcertaining the ſame, it will be ſufficient here to ſay, that as its extent is very conſiderable, both in length and breadth, its temperature, climate, ſoil, &c. cannot but vary accordingly: all that part which was inhabited by the French, and which is moſtly along the banks of the great river St. Lawrence, is, generally ſpeaking, exceſſive cold in winter, though hot in ſummer, as moſt of the American tracts commonly are, which do not lie too far to the northward. The reſt of the country, as far as it is known, is interſected with large woods, lakes, and rivers, which render it ſtill colder. It has, however, no inconſiderable quantity of good fertile lands, which by experience are found capable of producing wheat, barley, rye, and other grain, grapes and fruit, and indeed almoſt every thing that grows in France; but its chief product is tobacco, which it yields in large quantities. There is likewiſe plenty of ſtags, elks, bears, foxes, martens, wild-cats, and other wild creatures in the woods, beſides wild-fowl and other game. The ſouthern parts, in particular, breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a ſmall ſize, divers ſorts of roe-bucks, goats, wolves, &c. The meadow grounds, which are all well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed great quantities of large and ſmall cattle; and where the arable land is well manured, it produces large and rich crops, the mountains abound with coal mines, and ſome, we are told, of ſilver and other metals, though we have not learned that any great advantage has been made of them. The marſhy grounds, which are likewiſe very extenſive, ſwarm with otters, beavers, &c.

Canada and Louiſiana.

The lakes are both large and numerous; the principal of which are thoſe of Erie, Michigan, Huron, Superior, Frontenac or Ontario, Temiſcaming, beſides others of a ſmaller ſize; but the largeſt of them is that which they name Superior, or Upper Lake, which is ſituated the fartheſt north, and is reckoned one hundred leagues in length, and about ſeventy where broadeſt, and hath ſeveral conſiderable iſlands on it; the chief whereof are the Royal Iſle,

Pont

Pont Chartrain, Maurepas, St. Anne, St. Ignatius, Hocquart, Minong, and a number of ſmaller ones.

The whole country abounds with very large rivers, which it is endleſs to enter into a detail of; the two principal are thoſe of St. Lawrence and the Miſſiſippi; the former of which abounds with a no leſs variety than plenty of fine fiſh, and receives ſeveral conſiderable rivers in its courſe. The entrance into the bay of St. Lawrence lies between the Cape de Retz, on the iſle of Newfoundland, and the north cape is that called the Royal Iſland, or more commonly Cape Breton. The Miſſiſippi, which runs through the greateſt part of the province of Louiſiana, from north to ſouth, is called by the French the river of St. Louis, and by the natives Miſſiſippi, on account of the vaſt tract of ground which it overflows at certain ſeaſons; and by the Spaniards, la Paliſſada, from the prodigious quantities of timber which they ſend down upon it in floats to the ſea. It is navigable above four hundred and fifty leagues up from its mouth. The ſpring-head of this river is not yet ſatisfactorily known; but it is certain that it diſcharges itſelf into the gulf of Mexico by two branches, which form an iſland of conſiderable length.

Canada, in its largeſt ſenſe, is divided into eaſtern and weſtern; the former of which is commonly known by the name of Canada, or New France; and the latter, which is of much later diſcovery, Louiſiana, in honour of the late Louis XIV. The eaſtern Canada contains the following provinces, viz. 1. Canada, properly ſo called; 2. Sanguenay; 3. Acadia; 4. Atrurembeg; 5. New England; 6. New Holland; 7. New Sweden; the five laſt of which have been diſmembered from it ſome time ſince; ſo that there are but two provinces in this eaſtern Canada that belonged to the French before the late war, viz. Canada Proper, and Sanguenay. The former of theſe, including all to the north and weſt of the great river and lakes, contained formerly twenty-eight tribes, but at preſent is divided into the thirteen following provinces, moſt of them named from their capital towns or forts, viz. 1. Gaſpe; 2. St. Jean Iſle; 3. Miſcon Iſle; 4. Richelieu; 5. Les Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers; 6. Montreal Iſle; 7. Fort Frontenac; 8. De Conti; 9. St. François; 10. Notre Dame des Anges; 11. St. Alexis; 12. St. Michael; 13. St. Joſeph. Sanguenay contains four nations or tribes, and is divided into the ſix following provinces or cantons, called ſo from their chief towns or forts, viz. 1. Quebec, a biſhoprick; 2. Sillery; 3. Tadouſſac; 4. Port-neuf, or New-port; 5. Chichequeduc; 6. Port St. Nicholas.

Canada

Canada Proper is by far the moſt conſiderable province of all this country, the fartheſt ſubdued, the beſt peopled, and the beſt cultivated. It has on the north the Terra da Labrador, Hudſon's Bay, and New Britain; on the eaſt the great river Sanguenay divides it from the province of that name; on the ſouth the great province of Louiſiana, and the Iroquois and Etechemins; as to the northern boundaries, they are not known, and muſt be left to time to diſcover.

This province is allowed to have greater plenty of beavers, and larger and finer than any other that are bred throughout Canada. Theſe, as well as the caſtors, are very much valued, not only for their furs, but the latter for their teſticles, which have been from long experience found to be an efficacious remedy againſt ſeveral diſeaſes, eſpecially thoſe of the hyſteric kind; and accordingly the natives carry on a large commerce of both. The river Canada abounds with variety of fiſh, eſpecially carp of a prodigious ſize, and white porpoiſes as large as oxen, beſides great numbers of crocodiles, and other amphibious creatures.

This colony, before the late war, was ſaid by ſome to be inhabited by one hundred and eighty thouſand French, who lived in affluence and tranquility: they were free from all taxes, and had full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber for fuel or building, and to ſow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. Their greateſt hardſhip was the winter cold, which is there ſo exceſſive from December to April, that the greateſt rivers freeze over, and the ſnow lies commonly two or three feet deep on the ground, though this part lies no farther north than from 40 to 48 degrees of latitude.

Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, ſo called from the three rivers which join their currents about a quarter of a mile below it, and fall into the great one of St. Lawrence, was the capital of the French government, and much reſorted to by ſeveral nations, which come down theſe rivers to it, and trade with it in various kinds of furs. The town here is ſurrounded with palliſades, and advantageouſly ſituated in the center of the country, and conſequently free from the incurſions of the ſavage Iroquois. It was the reſidence of the governor, who kept a major under him, and it has a monaſtery of Recollects, who act as curates. It was formerly the common empory, where the wild natives brought their furs, and other commodities, for ſale, before the Engliſh ſeized it in the reign of king Charles I. and their ſettlement at Montreal. The colony was again reſtored

ſtored in 1635, and the monks, who had ſettled a miſſion there, returned to it in 1673. The country about it is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. and has a good number of lordſhips and handſome ſeats. On each ſide of the river ſtand a great number of genteel houſes, ſcarce above a gun-ſhot from each other, and the river is full of pleaſure and fiſhing-boats, which ſerve for catching great quantities of fiſh.

Montreal is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name, in the river of St. Lawrence, and about fourteen leagues long, and four wide where broadeſt, and is very fertile in corn, fruits, &c. This town carried on a prodigious trade with the natives, whoſe chiefs went firſt to pay their duty to the governor, and make him ſome preſents, in order to prevent the prices of goods, which they came for, being raiſed to an exorbitant height. This concourſe began about June, and ſome of them came hither from places diſtant five hundred leagues; the fair was kept along the banks of the river, where they exchanged their commodities with the French; and centinels were placed at proper diſtances, to prevent the diſorders, which might otherwiſe happen from ſuch vaſt crowds of different nations. This concourſe laſted for near three months. The Indians brought thither all ſorts of furs, which they bartered for guns, powder, ball, great-coats, and other garments of the French manufacture; iron and braſs-work, and trinkets of all ſorts.

Saguenay, a province in the eaſtern Canada, is divided on the weſt, from that properly ſo called, by the river of its name. It has on the north-eaſt the nation called Creſtinaux; on the north-weſt that of the Eſquimaux; on the ſouth-eaſt it is bounded by the river St. Lawrence; and on the ſouth-weſt by that of Saguenay, at the mouth of which is the town of Three Rivers, above mentioned. Its extent is computed from this town, which is the frontiers of Canada Proper, quite to the farther end of the bay called the Seven Iſles.

The territory and lands on each ſide of the river were found ſo indifferent, that the colony which ſettled at Tadouſſac ſuffered ſo much there, that it quite diſcouraged the French, for a long time, from ſettling; but at length, upon their ſailing up as high as Quebec, they found ſuch encouragement as was ſufficiently productive of their proſperity there.

The river of Saguenay ſprings from the lake of St. John, and falls into that of St. Lawrence, at the town of Tadouſſac. The haven is capable of containing twenty-five men of war, and has good anchorage and ſhelter from ſtorms, it being

being of a round figure and deep, and surrounded at a distance with very high rocks. This province is much the same, as to its soil, climate, and inhabitants, with that of Canada Proper. It is remarkable, indeed, for an extraordinary plenty of marble of several kinds, insomuch that not only the principal towns, forts, churches, and palaces, but even the houses of private men, are built of it.

Quebec is the capital of this province; and the other principal places are, Sillery, Tadoussac, Port-Neuf, Beau-Port, St. Anne, Chicheque de Port, St. Nicholas, Port Cartier, and Necouba.

Quebec, the metropolis of all Canada, and an episcopal see, in latitude 46 deg. 53 min. and west longitude 70 deg. 40 min. is situated on the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the Little River, and on the north side of the former, and about one hundred and forty leagues from the sea. The haven is large, and capable of containing at least one hundred ships of the line; and the great river whereon it stands, though about four leagues wide, here contracts itself at once to the breadth of about a mile; and it is on that account that the name of Quebec was given it, which in the Algonkine Indian language signifies a shrinking, or growing narrower.

The Iroquois are the most considerable, and best known, of all the Indian nations in these parts; they are seated along the north side of the lake Ontario, Frontenac, and along the river of their name, which is that which carries the waters of the lake into the river of St. Lawrence. They are bounded on the north by the nations called Algonkins and Outavais, and the settlements at and about Montreal; on the east and south-east by New England, New York, Jersey, &c. on the south by Canada Proper and the lake Erie; and on the west by that of the Hurons, and the canal between those two lakes. Their soil is rich and high; their water-melons, pompions, &c. are very large, sweet, and of a fine colour and flavour; but they are too proud and lazy to give themselves much trouble about cultivating their lands, which is perhaps the cause of their producing so little.

The Illinois inhabit near the lake and river of that name; they live in villages at a great distance from each other, on the marshy plains, on both sides of the river, near which are large woods and hills, covered with a delightful verdure about nine months in the year, whilst the current thereof, which is mostly south-west, is so smooth and agreeable, that vessels of a considerable size may sail up and down

it with eaſe and ſafety, for a courſe of one hundred and twenty leagues, before it falls into that of the Miſſiſſippi. The lands on each ſide afford ſuch plenty of paſture that they are covered with moſt ſorts of cattle; and the river ſwarms with water-fowl of divers ſpecies.

Canada, ſince it became a colony of Great Britain, has been divided into the three governments of Quebec, Montreal, and Trois Rivieres.

Louiſiana. Weſtern Canada, or Louiſiana, contains a vaſt tract of land, and, according to the moſt modeſt of the French geographers, is bounded on the ſouth by the gulf of Mexico; on the north by the Illinois, laſt mentioned, and other Indian nations; on the eaſt by part of Florida, Georgia, and Carolina; and on the weſt by New Mexico and New Spain; but indeed theſe limits muſt now be much contracted, purſuant to the ſeventh and twentieth articles of the definitive treaty of peace of 1763.

The various rivers, frequently overflowing this country, render it in general extremely fertile and pleaſant. Nothing is more delightful than the meadows, which are fit for feed of all kinds. In ſome parts, the ſoil yields three or four crops in a year, for the winter conſiſts only in heavy rains, without any nipping froſts. Almoſt all ſorts of trees that Europe affords are to be found here, beſides variety of others unknown to us; and ſome of them very eſtimable, ſuch as tall and admirable cedars, a tree that diſtils gum, which is ſaid to excel all our European nobleſt perfumes; and cotton-trees, which are of a prodigious height. The whole country abounds with an infinite variety of game, fowl, cattle, and indeed every thing that life can deſire. But the chief glory of Louiſiana is the famous Miſſiſſippi, already mentioned, in many reſpects the fineſt river in the world: it is free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable within ſixty leagues of its ſource. The channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon, when, like the Nile, it floods. Its banks are adorned with a delightful variety of meadows and groves, and inhabited by almoſt two hundred different nations, whom the French found tractable to their meaſures. Our American ſeamen aſſert, that ſeveral of their rivers are fit to receive ſhips of the largeſt burdens, and have ſeveral ſafe and commodious harbours. What renders the Miſſiſſippi more conſiderable, is a great number of other large and navigable rivers, that run from eaſtward to weſtward, and mix at laſt with its ſtream. Of the firſt, M. De Sale, in the relation he preſented to count Frontenac of his voyage

on

on this river, affirms there are ſix or ſeven, each three hundred leagues in length, that fall below the Illinois; and propoſes it as a matter of the laſt importance, that the diſcovery of them ſhould be carried on, to prevent the Engliſh of Carolina from interfering with the French in their commerce with the Indians, ſince ſome of theſe rivers take their riſe from the Apalachian hills, not far from our ſettlements in that colony.

The French ſettlement on the Miſſiſſippi was the only in North America, that remained untouched from the ravages of the late war. New Orleans is the ſea-port to all this extenſive country, capable of producing every thing, ſugar, wine, &c. if civilized, cultivated, and peopled, as probably in a few years it might be.

The crown of England has a right, by diſcovery and taking poſſeſſion, to all this country. Sir Francis Drake took poſſeſſion on the weſt ſide of it, as far as latitude 42 deg. and a great way ſouth of that, for queen Elizabeth. King Charles II. granted it to the anceſtors of the late doctor Cox; but they neglecting to ſettle and people it, the French came and built the city of New Orleans, fifty leagues up the river, and a fort or two about ſixty miles below that city.

Reflections on the premiſes.

The French, before the late war broke out, imported from Canada, in beaver, ſeventy-five thouſand pounds; in deer-ſkins, twenty thouſand pounds; in furs, forty thouſand pounds; total one hundred and thirty-five thouſand pounds. The Engliſh import from North America, in the ſame articles, to the amount of ninety thouſand pounds. The great advantages gained by the French from ſuch a ſurpriſing increaſe in trade, are conſpicuous from the immenſe ſums they drew annually from other countries, in return for their American products, as well as for their cambrics, tea, brandy, wine, and other home manufactures. It is from hence that they chiefly maintained ſuch powerful armies, and afforded ſuch plentiful ſubſidies and penſions to ſeveral powers in Europe, when ſubſervient to their views and intereſts; and it is from hence that they built their ſhips of war, and nouriſhed and maintained ſeamen to ſupply them. It is computed, that they drew from two to three millions of pounds ſterling per annum from foreign countries, in return for ſugars, indigo, coffee, ginger, beaver manufactured into hats, ſalt-fiſh, and other American products; and near one million more from Great Britain and Ireland only, in wool and caſh, in return for cambrics, tea, brandy, and wine; and thereby fought us in trade, as well as in war, with our own weapons. Whether this

great increaſe of the French commerce was owing to the extent and fertility of their territories, or to their prudent regulations and encouragements thereof, both at home and abroad, or to the experience and vigilance of the council of commerce, we will not determine, though, perhaps, chiefly to the latter.

But it hence evidently appears, that moſt nations, who have any concern in this part of the globe, are taught by experience, that they who promote the trade of their plantations, in due ſubſerviency to the intereſt of their mother country, are likely to have the greateſt ſhare of mercantile ſhipping, can boaſt of the beſt nurſery for ſeamen, enjoy an inexhauſtible fund of wealth, and will always be able to maintain the ſovereignty of the ſeas.

SECT. IV.

Of the American Iſlands.

THE iſlands of America are of not leſs importance than its continent. To avoid confuſion, it will be beſt to treat of them under diſtinct heads, as they belong to Spain, France, Holland, Great Britain, &c.

The Spaniſh iſlands in America are the following:

Spaniſh American Iſlands.

Cuba.

1. Cuba, which begins on the eaſt ſide at latitude 20 deg. 20 min. touches on the north at the tropic of Cancer, and extends from longitude 74 deg. to 85 deg. 15 min. about 11 degrees from eaſt to weſt, or ſix hundred and ſixty miles from Cape St. Antonio on the weſt, to Cape Maize on the eaſt; but is very narrow in proportion, being in ſome parts not above twelve or fourteen leagues, and at moſt but one hundred and twenty miles in breadth. It lies ſixty miles to the weſt of Hiſpaniola, twenty-five leagues to the north of Jamaica, one hundred miles to the eaſt of Jucatan, and as many to the ſouth of Cape Florida; and commands the entrance of both the gulfs of Mexico and Florida, and the windward paſſage; ſo that the Spaniards, who are the ſole poſſeſſors of it, may with a tolerable fleet, not only ſecure their own trade, but annoy their neighbours.

There are no winters in this iſland; but in July and Auguſt, when the ſun is vertical, the rains and ſtorms are great, elſe the country would be intolerably hot. The faireſt ſeaſon is when the ſun is fartheſt, and then it is hotteſt in the morning; for towards noon a ſea breeze ſprings up, which blows pretty briſk till the evening. The trade winds

winds in theſe ſeas blow from the north-eaſt. At the full and change of the moon, from October to April, there are briſk winds at north and north-weſt, which in December and January often turn into ſtorms; though this is called the fair ſeaſon.

Cuba is ſaid to have generally the beſt land, for ſo large a country, of any in America, and to produce all the commodities known in the American iſlands; particularly ginger, long pepper, and other ſpices; caſſia, maſtic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm-trees, plenty of large vines, fine cotton-trees, and the moſt of that ſort of tobacco from which the Havanna ſnuff is made. Two ſorts of fruit, called camitor and guanavana, are alſo produced in this iſland: the firſt is like a China orange, and its tree as tall as the pear-tree, with a leaf green on one ſide, and of a cinnamon-colour on the other. The ſecond is in the ſhape of an heart, green without, and having ſome thorny prickles within, and alſo ſome ſtones and a juice between ſweet and acid: the tree is as big as that which bears the pine-apple. The other fruits are plantains, bananas, ananas, quavas, and lemons. The inhabitants have beſides many large walks of cocoas and good ſugar-works; but the ſugars, though the beſt in the Weſt Indies, are in no great quantity, for want of hands to cultivate the canes. Here are mines of copper, which furniſh the Spaniſh plantations with this metal for all their braſs guns; and gold duſt being found in the ſands of the rivers, it is conjectured there are mines of gold, if not of ſilver in the mountains, of which a high ridge runs from the eaſt to the weſt end of the iſland; but the Spaniards having deſtroyed all the natives, they either never diſcovered where the mines were, or if they did, it is ſuppoſed they were loth to venture the opening of them, for fear of an invaſion; as is ſaid to have been the very caſe at Florida, where, though they had many mines towards the North Sea, they rather employed themſelves in others far up the country.

Cuba has many very good ports and harbours, which are of great advantage to ſhips for paſſing the gulf in ſafety. There are great conveniencies near it, both for making ſalt and catching fiſh. It has mules, plenty of horſes, ſheep, wild boars, hogs, and cattle of a larger and better breed than any other part of America; together with wild and tame fowl, parrrots, partridges with blue heads, and large tortoiſes. The cattle brought hither formerly by the Spaniards have multiplied to ſuch a prodigious degree, that they run wild in the woods, though great numbers are killed purely for the hides that are ſent into Spain. The

fleſh being cut into pieces is dried in the ſun, and ſerves as proviſion for ſhips. Quarries of flints are alſo here met with; and ſeveral fountains of bitumen, which is uſed for ſhips inſtead of pitch, as well as for medicinal purpoſes. Upon the whole, the iſland is pleaſant, and its preſent ſtate flouriſhing, the Spaniards having every year, for a conſiderable time paſt, added ſomething to its improvement.

It is divided into ſeven provinces, of which the civil government is dependent on the audience of St. Domingo, and as to ſpirituals, its biſhop, whoſe ſee is at St. Jago, though he commonly reſides at the Havanna, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Domingo. The eaſt part of the iſland is ſaid to be ſubject to the governor of St. Jago, and the weſt to the governor of the Havanna. It contains many conſiderable towns; but the chief of all, though St. Jago ſtill retains the name of the capital city, is

Havanna, a city and port on the north-weſt coaſt, about fifty leagues from Cape St. Antonio, its weſternmoſt point; four hundred and ninety miles weſt from St. Jago; forty-one leagues ſouth of the cape of Florida, the gulf of which it commands by being ſituated at its mouth, entering into the gulf of Mexico; and two days ſail from the ſtraits of Bahama. It was built by Diego de Velaſquez, who, in the beginning of the ſixteenth century, landed here with three hundred Spaniards, and conquered Cuba, with the aſſiſtance of the famous Bartholomew de las Caſas, who afterwards turning a Dominican friar, was made biſhop of Chiapa, in New Spain, and wrote the hiſtory of the Spaniſh cruelties here and in the other parts of the Weſt Indies. It was taken and ſacked pretty often by the Engliſh and French adventurers. The Engliſh buccaneers, under captain Morgan, took it in 1699, and would have kept it, if they could have obtained the king of England's protection. The Spaniards ſince fortified it to the degree, as they thought, of having made it impregnable; but after a long and obſtinate defence, it ſurrendered, with all its forts and dependencies, the men of war in the harbour, to the amount of eleven, and ſome frigates, with an immenſe treaſure, to his Britannic majeſty's arms, by capitulation, on the 13th of Auguſt, 1762.

The port of the Havanna is ſaid to be the moſt frequented, as well as the beſt, in all the Weſt Indies, and one of the fineſt in the world. It is ſo large, that one thouſand ſail of ſhips may ride in it commodiouſly and ſafely, without anchor or cable, no wind being able to hurt them,

them. It is alſo ſo deep, that the largeſt veſſels anchor at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore, and there is commonly ſix fathoms water. The entrance, which has no bar or ſhoals to obſtruct it, is by a channel about three quarters of a mile in length, but ſo narrow, that only one ſhip can go in at a time. The harbour, into which it leads at the north-weſt corner, is a long ſquare, lying north and ſouth. At the other three corners, it forms three creeks and bays. At the bottom of that in the ſouth-eaſt corner, lies the town of Guan Albacca, two leagues from the Havanna by land, but little more than a league by ſea.

The city, which is ſaid to be the richeſt in America, (as it is, no doubt, when the galleons are here, for at other times it is poor enough) ſtands in the moſt fruitful part of the iſland, and the only part where there are any farms or ſheep, all the reſt of it being mountainous and uncultivated. It is built on the weſt ſide of the harbour, in a delightful plain along the ſhore, which rounds ſo much, that above half of it is waſhed by the ſea, and the reſt of it by two branches of the river Lagida. Its figure is oval, and begins about a quarter of a mile from the mouth of the harbour. The buildings, which are of ſtone, make a good appearance, but are not high; and the ſtreets are narrow, but clean and ſtrait. There is a fine ſquare with uniform buildings in the middle of the town. The churches are magnificent and rich. In fact, it is a city of the greateſt importance to the Spaniards of all their cities in America, being the place of rendezvous for all their fleets in their return from that quarter of the world to Spain, and lying at the mouth of the gulf of Florida, through which they are all obliged to paſs. The Spaniards, therefore, not without reaſon, call it the key of all the Weſt Indies, to lock up or open the door of entrance to all America: and indeed no ſhips can paſs that way, without leave from this port. Here rides the king of Spain's navy, and here meet, in September, the galleons, flota, and other merchant ſhips, from ſeveral ports both of the continent and iſlands, to the number of perhaps fifty or ſixty ſail, to take in proviſions and water, with great part of their lading; and for the convenience of returning to Spain in a body. A continual fair is kept till their departure, which is generally before the end of the month; when proclamation is made, forbidding any that belong to the fleet to ſtay in the town, on pain of death; and upon firing a warning-gun, they all go a-board. The cargo they go off with is ſeldom leſs than ſeven millions ſterling; ſo that it may be naturally imagined, that a place of this import-

ance is in a condition both to defend itself, and to protect the ships that frequent it. Since it has been restored to the Spaniards they have been busy in repairing all the damages the fortifications sustained during the siege, and adding new ones, besides taking every other precaution to secure it for the future from all attempts of an enemy.

St. Domingo, or Hispaniola.

2. Saint Domingo, or Hispaniola, is the largest, next to Cuba, of all the Antilles Islands. It is situate fifty miles east of Cuba, and seventy of Jamaica, and is about four hundred and twenty miles long from east to west, and one hundred and twenty broad from north to south. It is separated from Cuba and Jamaica by what is called the windward passage; and is allowed to be the most fruitful, and by much the most pleasant in the West Indies, having extensive forests of cabbage-trees, palm, elms, oaks, pines, acajou, and other trees, taller and larger, and the fruit more lovely to the eye, and better tasted, than in the other islands; particularly ananas, bananas, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, toronias, limes, dates, and apricots. There is scarce a country in the world better watered, either by brooks or navigable rivers. Its herds of cattle are innumerable, and sufficient to supply most of the neighbouring colonies. The general commodities are hides, sugar, indigo, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ginger, tobacco, salt, wax, honey, ambergrise, and various kinds of drugs and dying woods. This island was the first of the Spaniards discoveries, and for some time the centre of their commerce in America. After their conquests in Peru, they slighted it, the gold found here being nothing in comparison to what they met with in that kingdom. The buccaneers and other adventurers came hither afterwards to hunt the cattle the Spaniards had imported, which were grown wild, and killed incredible numbers of them for their hides and tallow; and here, also, they used to victual their ships. The French finding the island almost deserted, took possession of the north-west part of it, which they still possess; whereupon the Spaniards returned and settled in Domingo, the south part of the island, again, to prevent other nations seizing of that, and interrupting their navigation to the continent. The capital city, St. Domingo, was taken by sir Francis Drake, the English admiral, in 1586; but quitted again, as several other places were, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, the court not thinking it good policy to keep them: but Cromwell was of another mind, and sent his generals Penn and Venables, with the greatest force the English ever had in those seas, to possess themselves of

St.

St. Domingo; but being diſappointed, they afterwards ſubdued the iſland of Jamaica, in 1654. The French have improved their ſettlements here to ſuch a degree, and are grown ſo powerful, that they may make themſelves maſters of the whole iſland whenever they pleaſe. In 1726 it was computed that there were two hundred ſugar works on this iſland, which, on an average, made annually four hundred hogſheads, each of five hundred pounds weight, and did not bring leſs than two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling per annum to the French. The indigo was thought to produce half as much. At preſent it is thought the trade is rather in a better than worſe condition, in regard to theſe articles.

3. Porto Rico, ſeparated by a narrow channel from St. Domingo, is a hundred and twenty miles long, and ſixty broad. It is a very fertile iſland, abounding in fine meadows, and well ſtocked with wild cattle. The principal commodities in which the inhabitants deal, are ſugar, ginger, hides, cotton thread, and raw cotton, caſſia, maſtic, &c. Their pork is excellent, and ſo is the fleſh of their kids, but their mutton is poor dry food. They have good ſhip timber, and variety of fruit-trees, with rice and Indian corn. The genius of the people, and the convenient ſituation of the iſland, would render it the moſt flouriſhing of all the Spaniſh colonies, were it not for the miſchiefs to which they are frequently liable from great drought, hurricanes, and the deſcents of privateers, whereby their ſea-ports have been often ruined. This iſland was conquered by the earl of Cumberland, at his own expence, and that of other private adventurers, in the reign of queen Elizabeth; but he was obliged to abandon it again, having loſt moſt of his men by ſickneſs in the latter end of the ſummer, when this, and all places in theſe latitudes, are very unhealthy. The chief city of Porto Rico is St. John's, ſituated on a ſmall iſland within the harbour, on the north ſide of the chief iſland, and joined to it by a cauſeway. The town is about a mile and a half in circumference, built after the Spaniſh model, and fortified, as well as the entrance of the harbour, by forts and batteries of guns, which render the town almoſt inacceſſible by ſea; nor is the ſituation leſs pleaſant than ſtrong, being built on an eminence, and commanding the ocean on one ſide, and the main iſland on the other. The Virgin Iſlands, ſituate at the eaſt end of Porto Rico, are exceeding ſmall. *Porto Rico.*

4. Trinidad, ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſia, in Terra Firma, by the narrow ſtrait of Boco del Drago, eighty miles north-weſt of the river Oronoque. This iſland *Trinidad.*

island is ninety miles long, and sixty broad, and is reckoned an unhealthy but fruitful soil, producing sugar, tobacco, indigo, cotton, ginger, and Indian corn. It was taken by sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, but quitted again, and the French took it in 1676; and besides their plunder, extorted eighty thousand pieces of eight from the Spaniards, to save their houses: but the French also quitted the island, and the Spaniards still remain sovereigns of it.

Margaretta. 5. Margaretta, situate two hundred miles west of Trinidad. It is one of the largest of the Leeward Islands, being about fifty miles long and twenty-four broad, and affording Indian corn, and the usual tropical fruits; but very little wood or water.

There are other islands belonging to Spain, but situate in the Pacific Ocean, as Chiloe, on the coast of Chili; Juan Fernando, three hundred miles west of Chili; Gallipago's Islands, under the equator, four hundred miles west of Peru; Golden Island; Isle of Pines; Samballas Islands; and Bastimentos, near Porto Bello, in Terra Firma. We have already treated of the Pearl Islands, in the bay of Panama.

French American Islands. The French, after the peace in 1763, besides part of the island of St. Domingo, described above, were possessed of Cayenne, St. Martin, St. Bartholomew, Desеada, Guadaloupe, Marigalante, Martinico, and St. Lucia.

Cayenne. 1. Cayenne, deemed a part of Terra Firma, is a town situate on a small island of the same name, bounded by the Dutch colonies of Surinam on the north, and the mouth of the river Amazon on the south. The French have given it the name of Equinoctial France, from its situation under or near the equator. It produces tobacco, sugar, and Indian corn.

St. Martin. 2. Saint Martin, an island of no great consequence, is situate a little to the north-west of

St. Bartholomew. 3. Saint Bartholomew, a small island about ten leagues north of St. Christopher's, taken by the English under the command of sir Timothy Thornhill, in 1689, but restored to the French at the peace of Ryswick.

Desеada. 4. Desеada, Desiderada, or the Desirable Island, so called by Columbus, because it was the first land he discovered in his second voyage to America, is situate about ten leagues east of Guadaloupe. It is a small inconsiderable island, and not so fruitful as the following French Caribbee Islands.

Guadaloupe. 5. Guadaloupe, so named by Columbus, from its hills resembling those of that name in Spain, is situated about thirty leagues north of Martinico, and almost as much south of Antigua. It is the largest of all the Caribbee Islands, being

being twenty-two leagues in length, and half as much in breadth, at each end; but almoſt divided into two, by a deep gulf or bay on each ſide, ſo that the ends are joined together by a narrow iſthmus. It abounds in ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. and in a very flouriſhing condition; and, agreeable to the conſequence it is of to the French, they took great pains to have it reſtored to them, with Martinico, by the definitive treaty of peace in 1763, both iſlands having been ſome time before ſubdued by the all-conquering Britiſh arms in America. The French began to ſend colonies to this iſland about the year 1632; but being unacquainted with the nature of the ſoil, for many years were in danger of ſtarving; and afterwards the planters, by their diviſions, almoſt ruined one another; ſo that this iſland did not make any great figure till the preſent century; ſince the beginning of which it has greatly increaſed, and makes more ſugar now than any of the Britiſh iſlands, except Jamaica.

6. Marigalante, lying a little to the ſouth-eaſt of Guadaloupe, is about ſixteen leagues in circuit, the ſoil pretty good, and its ſugars of the finer ſort; beſides which, it produces indigo, cotton, and ginger. It was diſcovered by Columbus in his ſecond voyage to America, in 1493, and named by him Marigalante, or the *Gallant Mary*, after the name of his ſhip. The French began to ſend colonies thither about the year 1647. *Marigalante.*

7. Martinico is ſituate a hundred and twenty miles north-weſt of Barbadoes; being ſixty miles long, but ſcarce twenty broad in any place. The inland part is mountainous, from whence fall numerous rivulets into the ſea; and there are ſeveral ſafe and commodious harbours, all well fortified on the coaſt, with good roads for ſhipping. The produce of the iſland conſiſts of ſugar, cotton, ginger, indigo, cacao, aloes, pimento, cocos, plaintains, and other tropical fruits; and as it is much larger and better peopled than Barbadoes, it yields a great deal more ſugar. It is now the chief of all the French Caribbee Iſlands, and the ſeat of their governor-general; and had formerly three thouſand five hundred men bearing arms, and about ſixteen thouſand blacks of both ſexes. *Martinico.*

8. Saint Lucia, one of the iſlands called Neutral, was, by the ninth article of the definitive treaty of peace in 1763, to remain in full right to France, as by the ſame ſtipulated partition the other Neutral Iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, were to remain in full right to Great Britain. This iſland lies twenty-one miles ſouth of Martinico, and is about twenty-two miles in length, and eleven broad. *St. Lucia.*

broad. The greateſt part of it is very good land; in ſome places hilly, interſperſed with many rich vallies, and very well watered with fine rivers all through the iſland, which render it exceeding pleaſant and delightful. It muſt alſo be very healthy by being ſo narrow, and the hills not being ſo high as to intercept the general trade-winds that continually fan it from the eaſtward, whereby the heat of the climate is mitigated, and made rather agreeable than troubleſome. The variety of ſituations it beſides affords by the hills and vales, makes it both convenient and delightful, as well as the pleaſantneſs of the proſpects. It is covered with woods, among which are great quantities of fine timber, fit for building houſes and windmills. Before the late war, both Barbadoes and Martinico were from hence furniſhed with large quantities. The iſland alſo abounds with wild-fowl, and the adjacent ſea with fiſh. It has ſeveral good bays, and excellent harbours for ſhips to anchor in; particularly one on the north-weſt part of the iſland, in which a great number of ſhips may be ſafe from all weathers. In ſhort, this iſland is much the fineſt and moſt convenient of any in the Caribbee Iſlands.

Dutch American iſlands.

The Dutch are poſſeſſed of Curaſſou, Bonaire, and Aruba, near the coaſt of Terra Firma; and Euſtatia and Saba, among the Caribbee Iſlands. Curaſſou, or Curacoa, is about nine or ten leagues in length, and about five in breadth; the ſoil is far from being fruitful, and the climate ſtill farther from being either wholeſome or agreeable; but notwithſtanding theſe diſadvantages, ſuch have been the care and induſtry of the Dutch, that they have always drawn great advantages from this ſmall country, in which, formerly, there were large paſtures, and a great quantity of cattle, but they turned theſe into ſugar and tobacco plantations; ſo that, at preſent, it may be thought, that the proviſions of all ſorts raiſed in this iſland could ſcarce maintain its inhabitants one day; yet ſuch is the prudence of the Dutch government, that the inhabitants are ſo far from being expoſed to want, that there is not a more plentiful or better provided place in the Weſt Indies; but, at the ſame time, it muſt be underſtood, that every thing fetches a high price here, which inſtead of being a diſadvantage, is, in in reality, the principal ſource of the great wealth of the inhabitants. On the ſouth ſide of the eaſt end of this iſland there is a harbour, called Santa Barbara; but the chief harbour is about three leagues from the ſouth-eaſt end, on the ſouth ſide, where the Dutch have a very good town and a ſtrong fort. The town, for its ſize, is one of the faireſt and fineſt in America; and contains every thing

thing neceſſary to render it commodious and agreeable, as far as the climate and ſoil will permit. The other Dutch iſlands of Bonaire and Aruba are conſiderable, chiefly, (and indeed the ſame may be ſaid of Curaſſou), for their ſituation near the coaſt of Terra Firma, which gives the inhabitants an opportunity of carrying on a clandeſtine trade with the Spaniſh ſettlements in Terra Firma. Let the Spaniſh governors prohibit this ſmuggling trade never ſo ſeverely, the Spaniards ſtand ſo much in need of European commodities, that they run any hazard to deal with the Dutch; and as it is their common intereſt to connive at this kind of traffic, the people cannot be very hearty in their endeavours to prevent it. On the ſouth ſide of Bonaire is a good ſalt-pond, whither the Dutch ſloops come for ſalt, which is now become a very conſiderable commodity, and the Dutch are contriving methods of turning it to ſtill greater advantage. The Dutch iſlands of Saba and Euſtatia produce ſugar, &c. as the reſt of the Caribbee Iſlands do; but Euſtatia in particular is become a mart, if not a rendezvous, for the ſmugglers of all nations in theſe parts.

The Danes are poſſeſſed of the iſland of St. Thomas, one of the Caribbees, producing ſugar, &c. It is the only place they have in America. St. Croix, or Santa Cruz, a ſmall iſland about twenty leagues weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is now under the protection of the king of Denmark, but chiefly the property of ſome Iriſh gentlemen. This iſland has been contended for by the Engliſh, Dutch, Spaniards, and French.

The Britiſh American iſlands are, Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtopher's, Nevis, Antego, Barbuda, Anguilla, Monſerrat, Dominica, St. Vincent, Tobago, the iſlands of Grenada, and of the Grenadines, the Lucaya's, or Bahama Iſlands, Bermuda, or the Summer Iſlands, Cape Breton, and Newfoundland. *Britiſh American iſlands.*

1. Jamaica was diſcovered by Columbus in 1493, and taken from the Spaniards by general Venables, and a ſquadron of men of war under the command of admiral Penn, in 1654. The Spaniards continued to lurk in ſome parts of the iſland for ſeveral years after, but at the Revolution it was ſo entirely reduced, that the Spaniards yielded it to the crown of Great Britain, to which it has belonged ever ſince; and it is, doubtleſs, the nobleſt poſſeſſion we have in thoſe parts. It is ſituated in the Atlantic Ocean, between 17 and 19 deg. of north latitude, and about 60 deg. of weſt longitude from Ferro; and ſtretches from eaſt to weſt a hundred and forty miles, and is about ſixty in the middle, *Jamaica.*

middle, from north to ſouth; but grows leſs towards each end.

The whole iſland has one continued ridge of hills, running from eaſt to weſt through the middle of it, which is generally called the Blue Mountains: the tops of ſome are higher than thoſe of others; one of the higheſt is called Mount Diabolo. On each ſide of this chain of mountains are others, but much lower. The ſurface of the earth ſeems to be different here from what it is in Europe, the vallies being very level, with little or no riſing ground or ſmall hills, without rocks or ſtones; the mountainous part is very ſteep, and furrowed by very deep channels on the north and ſouth ſides of the higheſt hills: theſe channels are made here by frequent and violent rains, which almoſt every day fall on the mountains, and, firſt wearing a ſmall trench or courſe for their paſſage, waſh away afterwards whatever oppoſes theſe torrents, and make their channels extraordinary ſteep. The greateſt part of the highlands of this iſland are either ſtone or clay, which, reſiſting the rains, are not carried down violently with them into the plains, as the moulds proper for tillage and friable earths are: hence it is, that in theſe mountainous places, ſuch earths are rarely found; but, inſtead thereof, a very ſtrong tough clay, or ſome kind of rock, on which no earth appears. All the highlands are covered with woods, ſome of the trees very good timber, tall and ſtrait. It is ſurpriſing how theſe trees can grow in ſuch a barren ſoil, ſo thick together among the rocks; but they ſend down their fibrous roots into the crannies of the rocks, where, here and there, they meet with ſmall receptacles of rain water, which nouriſh their roots.

It is wonderful to ſee in how ſhort a time a plantation, formerly cleared of trees and ſhrubs, will grow foul. This ariſes from two cauſes: the one, by not ſtubbing the roots, whence young ſprouts ariſe; and the other, the fertility of the ſoil. The ſettlements and plantations, not only of the native Indians, but alſo thoſe of the Spaniards, are now entirely overgrown with tall trees; and there would be no traces of them remaining, were it not for old paliſadoes, ruins of old buildings, orange walls, &c. which evidently ſhew plantations have been there. There are the ſame ſtrata, or layers of earth, over one another, in the fruitful part of the iſland, as are to be met with in Europe; and the ſame difference of ſoil appears as in England, in digging of wells, and other occaſions of opening the ground. Moſt of the ſavannahs, or plains fit for paſture, and cleared of wood, are like our meadow land, and lie

lie near the ſouth ſide of the iſland, where one may ride a great many miles without meeting the leaſt aſcent; ſome of theſe plains within land are incircled with hills. Theſe ſavannahs, after rains, are very green and pleaſant; but, after long droughts, are much withered, and look yellow and parched.

The chief ports in the iſland are, 1. Port Royal, a fine capacious harbour; 2. Old Harbour, which lies ſeven or eight miles ſouth-weſt of Spaniſh Town; 3. Port Morant, at the eaſt end of the iſland; and 4. Port Negril, at the weſt end of the iſland. There are, beſides theſe, ſeveral more on the ſouth and north ſides of the iſland; but the coral rocks, which almoſt ſurround it, make it dangerous to approach the coaſt without a pilot.

There are near one hundred rivers in Jamaica, but none of them navigable; for riſing in the mountains in the middle of the iſland, they precipitate themſelves down the rocks to the north or ſouth, and fall into the ſea, before they have run many miles, carrying frequently down with them large pieces of rocks and timber. But, notwithſtanding this number of rivers, water is very ſcarce in ſome of the ſavannahs in dry years, ſo that many cattle die with thirſt. Near the ſea, as at Port Royal, the well-water is brackiſh and unwholeſome, cauſing fluxes and other diſorders in the ſailors who drink it. The river-water is thick with clay and earth, and has a diſagreeable taſte; but, if ſuffered to ſettle ſome days in earthern jars, is very good. There is a ſalt river, and many ſalt lagunas, or great ponds, in the iſland. It is very common to ſee cataracts or caſcades, in the rivers among the mountains, fifty or ſixty feet high.

This iſland, lying 7 deg. within the tropic, has the trade-wind continually, which, on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, is called the ſea-breeze. It begins about eight o'clock in the morning, and increaſes till noon; and then, as the ſun grows lower, the breeze decreaſes till four in the afternoon, when it is quite calm. About eight in the evening begins the land-breeze, extending till midnight, and decreaſes till four. The land-wind blowing at night, and the ſea-breeze in the day-time, no ſhip can come into port, but during the day, nor go out, but at break of day, or very ſoon after.

Earthquakes are very frequent in Jamaica; the inhabitants expect one every year. A very conſiderable one happened on the 19th of February, 1688, and was felt all over the iſland: it was obſerved, that the ground roſe like the ſea in waves, as the earthquake paſſed along. But this was

nothing

nothing to that which happened at Port Royal, in 1692, by which that town was almoſt ſwallowed up.

The dews here are ſo great within land, that the water drops from the leaves of the trees in the morning, as if it had rained; but there are ſeldom any fogs in the plains or ſandy places near the ſea. The rains are very violent, and the drops exceeding large: the great rainy ſeaſons are in May and October.

The general produce of the iſland of Jamaica is ſugar, rum, ginger, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ſeveral kinds of woods, ſome medicinal drugs and tobacco; but the laſt of ſo ordinary a ſort, that it is only cultivated to ſerve the Negroes. Fruits of moſt ſorts grow here in great plenty; but the ſugar-cane is the glory and treaſure of Jamaica, and the principal article of its commercial concerns.

The conſumption of ſugars in Great Britain, one year with another, has been computed at ſeventy thouſand hogſheads, each containing twelve hundred pounds; and all our colonies are ſuppoſed to produce, on an average, eight hundred and fifty thouſand hogſheads of ſugar yearly. It is computed that there are three hundred ſail of ſhips ſent every year to our ſugar-colonies from Great Britain, which are navigated by four thouſand five hundred ſeamen; that the freight of the ſugars brought hither amounts to one hundred and ſeventy thouſand pounds per year; and the duty, cummiſſion, &c. to little leſs than two hundred thouſand pounds more. As to the exports from hence to our ſugar-colonies, it appeared by the cuſtom-houſe books in 1726, that all the Britiſh manufactures exported to Barbadoes, all the Leeward Iſlands, and Jamaica, put together, (the latter of which generally take as much for the Spaniſh trade, &c. as all thoſe other iſlands), amounted to two hundred and thirty-four thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-five pounds ſeventeen ſhillings.

The Jamaica ſugar is ſaid to be the beſt of all our plantations, and made with the greateſt eaſe; for it cures faſter here in ten days, than it does in ſix months in Barbadoes, eſpecially in thoſe places where it rains for months together. There were about ſixty ſugar-mills in Jamaica in 1670, which were computed to make about two millions of pounds weight of ſugar; and ſome ſay, they now make ten times as much as they did then.

There are few colonies in America ſo well ſtocked with cattle as this; horſes, aſſes, and mules, are very cheap; and there would have been numbers of horned cattle here, had not the inhabitants, who mind planting much more than grazing, leſſened their ſtock by their inattention to them;

them; ſo that at preſent they are ſupplied with beef, &c. from the northern colonies. Their ſheep are generally large and fat, and their fleſh very good; but the wool being long and full of hairs is worth nothing. Their bays, roads, and rivers, abound with excellent fiſh of almoſt all the European and American kinds; but the tortoiſe is by much the moſt valuable, both for its ſhell and fiſh, the latter being accounted the moſt delicious, and at the ſame time the moſt wholeſome in all the Indies.

The chief trade of Jamaica is with Great Britain; for the iſlanders wear, eat, and drink, ſcarce any thing but what comes from thence, except Madeira wine and rum punch.

The capital of Jamaica is called Spaniſh Town; but, being an inland place, its trade is inconſiderable: however, ſeveral wealthy merchants, and moſt of the gentlemen of eſtates, have houſes in it, where they live in a very gay and ſplendid manner. The harbour of Port Royal is, perhaps, one of the beſt in the world; it is about three leagues broad, and very deep, ſo that a thouſand ſail of the largeſt ſhips may ride in it ſafe from all winds, the hurricanes excepted. Kingſton is about five miles from Port Royal by water, but not leſs than fifteen by land: it is the reſidence of the moſt conſiderable merchants, whoſe ſhips load and unload here, which renders it a place of great trade; and there are rarely leſs than two hundred ſail of ſhips in the bay before it. The harbour is ſpacious, and the ſhips lie land-locked; but the peninſula that covers them from the ſea, being low and narrow, they are not entirely ſafe from ſtorms.

This, and all the other governments in the Britiſh American iſlands, are royal governments. The king appoints the governor and council, and the repreſentatives are choſen by the freemen; and theſe aſſemblies make laws, but they muſt be confirmed by the court of England.

The inhabitants are either Engliſh, or of Engliſh extraction born in the iſland; with Indians, Negroes, Mulattos; or Meſtize, or the deſcendents of them. The Engliſh, and thoſe of Engliſh extraction, may be thirty thouſand; the Indians are but few, moſt of the natives having been deſtroyed by the Spaniards. The Negroes on the iſland are about one hundred thouſand.

It has been a complaint of long ſtanding, that this iſland has been monopolized by a few over-grown planters, who make an advantage of keeping the greateſt part of the iſland in a ſtate of barrenneſs; as, by that means, they raiſe ſugar at leſs expence, and ſell it at a greater price than

they could otherwiſe do were the lands in more hands, or in a more extenſive ſtate of cultivation. It has therefore been thought by many, that an attack upon it by an enemy would be ſo far from being a national loſs, that were it ſucceſsful, it could only affect a few individuals. But thoſe who reaſon in this manner do not conſider the immenſe revenue brought to the crown by the produce of this iſland: and, what is ſtill of greater advantage, is the ſpecie brought from the neighbouring continent, by means of the traffic (whether illicit or not, is not material) that is carried on in the gulf of Mexico, and other Spaniſh colonies, from whence immenſe returns are made annually. This current of wealth, therefore, once ſtopped, and the iſland drained, what now appears, at firſt ſight, to be only a partial evil, would ſoon become general; and a great want of money, as well as a ſtagnation of trade, would immediately enſue: for the merchandizes principally traded with from Jamaica are manufactured at home, and the uninterrupted intercourſe between the two iſlands produces an inconceivable ſource of wealth to the merchants in both; this wealth diffuſing itſelf to all the working people employed in the ſeveral branches of commerce that are thus carried on, even to the remoteſt corners of Great Britain. Add to this, that Jamaica, by its ſituation, is fitted for the general rendezvous of the fleets employed in all the different ſervices in the Weſt Indies.

Barbadoes. 2. Barbadoes is not only one of the chief of the Caribbee Iſlands, and the moſt conſiderable of all the Britiſh iſlands in America, next to Jamaica, but was alſo the firſt ſettled, and the mother of all the Britiſh ſugar iſlands. It lies about twenty leagues from St. Vincent, which may be ſeen from it in a clear day. The climate is very hot, eſpecially for eight months in the year, but not ſo exceſſive as in the ſame latitude on the continent; becauſe, though there are no land breezes, yet there are others which ariſe from the ſea with the ſun, and increaſe as it advances to, but abate as it declines from, the meridian. There is ſcarce a harbour in the iſland, except that of Bridge Town, in Carliſle Bay; nor a ſtream that deſerves the name of a river; but they have wells of good water almoſt all over the iſland, without digging very deep, and large ponds and reſervoirs for rain-water. The country is for the moſt part plain and level, with ſome ſmall hills; and the woods have been all cut down to make room for plantations of ſugar-canes, which now take up almoſt the whole iſland, and render it the moſt valuable plantation to Great Britain, for its ſize, that it ever poſſeſſed.

When

When they firſt began to plant here, they produced a conſiderable crop yearly, from three years to nine, without farther trouble, except weeding and cleaning the ſoil; and every acre, one with another, yielded ten ſhillings a-year profit to the national ſtock of England, beſides what the planters got, and the thouſands it employed both here and there. But the ſoil of late years is not ſo fertile as formerly; and they are obliged to employ tame cattle, for the ſake of manure.

Here are all ſorts of the tropical fruits, with oranges and lemons in abundance, the fruit of which is large, and the juice delicious. Citron-trees alſo abound here, with the rind of whoſe fruit the ladies make the moſt delicious cordials and ſweetmeats. Fruit, in general, is become a ſtaple commodity; ſo that ſome tons have been imported into England and Ireland every year.

It has been computed that in the ſpace of one hundred years, the inhabitants of Great Britain have received twelve millions of ſilver by means of this plantation, beſides having fifty thouſand of her inhabitants maintained all that time, by the people of this colony. The Barbadians, in 1730, exported hither twenty-two thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-nine hogſheads of ſugar, each weighing thirteen hundred pounds, of which near eighteen thouſand hogſheads came into the port of London; and they made three hundred and forty thouſand three hundred and ninety-one pounds clear profit of the whole, it being proved that their rum and molaſſes paid all the charges of the plantation. With regard to indigo, great quantities of which were formerly exported from thence, now little or none is made there. Of ſcraped and ſcalded ginger they export large quantities; as alſo lignum vitæ, citron-water, the beſt that comes from any of our plantations, molaſſes, rum, and lime-juice.

In Bridge Town, the chief of the iſland, there is a college erected, with a revenue for profeſſors in the ſeveral ſciences: colonel Codrington was the principal benefactor. The number of white inhabitants are computed to be twenty thouſand, and of their Negro ſlaves one hundred thouſand. They receive their corn, flour, cattle, fleſh, and ſalted fiſh, from Penſylvania, and other Britiſh northern colonies, or from Ireland; and their furniture and cloathing from England. They have ſometimes hurricanes in autumn, but not ſo often as in the neighbouring iſlands. The plantations ſuffer greatly by theſe hurricanes. A kind of plague viſited the Barbadians in 1691, and carried

off multitudes of white people, a loſs which they have not recovered to this day.

This iſland was firſt reſorted to by the Engliſh in the reign of king James I. but James, earl of Carliſle, obtained the firſt grant of it in 1625, in the firſt year of king Charles I. who parcelled it out to ſeveral adventurers that tranſported themſelves thither. They found no inhabitants but a good breed of hogs, ſuppoſed to have been left here by the Spaniards or Portugueſe, in their voyages to the continent of America. The adventurers applied themſelves at firſt to the planting of tobacco, which not thriving as expected, they planted cotton and indigo, which yielded a conſiderable profit; but they made little ſugar till 1647, when the colonels Modiford, Drax, and Walrond, with other cavaliers, living uneaſy under the uſurpation, converted their eſtates into money, and tranſported themſelves to Barbadoes, where they erected ſugar-works, and acquired very great eſtates. In the year 1650, the white inhabitants of the iſland were increaſed to upwards of thirty thouſand, with twice that number of Negroes, who exerciſed their maſters with conſtant conſpiracies, in hopes of recovering their liberty; but not ſucceeding, were ſeverely puniſhed. King Charles II. purchaſed the property of this iſland of the proprietors in 1661, ever ſince which Barbadoes has been a royal government; and the colony granted a duty of four and a half per cent. on their ſugars, for maintaining the forces and fortifications in the iſland, which amounts to ten thouſand pounds per annum, though not always applied to the purpoſes it was deſigned, and proves an inſupportable burthen on the planters, no other iſland having ſo high a duty laid on their ſugars. De Ruyter, the Dutch admiral, treacherouſly attempted to ſurpriſe the iſland in 1664, in a time of peace, but was bravely repulſed.

St. Chriſtopher's.

3. The iſland of St. Chriſtopher's, called by our ſeamen St. Kitt's, lies between 17 deg. 25 min. north latitude, and in 44 deg. 55 min. weſt longitude from Ferro. It is about ten miles from Nevis, and forty-two from Antigua, and is twenty-five miles and a half in length from eaſt to weſt, and its greateſt breadth from north to ſouth is ſeven. The air is ſultry, but pleaſant and healthful, being agreeably tempered with cool breezes. Some repreſent it as one of the moſt delightful iſlands in the world. The ſoil is light and ſandy, and proper not only for the cultivation of tobacco and ſugar, but alſo for cotton, indigo, ginger, pine-apples, and fruits of all ſorts. It is well ſupplied with

ſprings, and has ſome hot baths. The vallies and ſides of the hills are very fertile, but the mountaias are of a ſulphureous compoſition, and overgrown, for the moſt part, with palmettoes, cotton-trees, lignum vitæ, and various other ſorts of trees. At the ſouth-eaſt end of the iſland there is an iſthmus that runs into the ſea, within a mile and a half of Nevis, where are ſalt-ponds, which produce a ſalt perfectly, and more ſtrong and pungent than the French. Though this is one of the largeſt of all the Leeward Iſlands, yet the middle part of it is ſo mountainous, that it is believed it has not above twenty-four thouſand acres of land fit for ſugar plantations, of which commodity it is reckoned to produce ten thouſand hogſheads one year with another. It is alſo ſuppoſed to make three hogſheads of ſugar to one of rum. This iſland was diſcovered by Columbus in his firſt voyage to America, and he gave it the name of St. Chriſtopher from the figure of its mountains; there being near the middle of the iſland a very high mountain, which bears on its ſummit another leſſer mountain, as St. Chriſtopher is repreſented like a giant, with our Saviour on his back. The Spaniards deſerting it, the Engliſh and French arrived here in 1625, and divided it between them. They lived in great amity together till a a war between the two nations, when the Engliſh drove the French entirely out of the iſland; and the country being yielded to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, all the French territory was ſold for the benefit of the public.

4. Nevis, about ſix leagues in circumference, is but three or four miles from the ſouth point of St. Chriſtopher's. The ſoil is fruitful, and even more ſo than that of St. Chriſtopher's. Sugar, which is the ſtaple commodity here as well as there, ſerves all the purpoſes of money. The whites on this iſland are now computed at about three thouſand, and the Negroes at three times that number, of whom at leaſt four thouſand are employed in the ſugar buſineſs. The Engliſh ſent the firſt colony to this iſland in 1628. An earthquake, in 1690, almoſt deſtroyed its chief town. *Nevis.*

5. Antigua lies ſixty miles eaſt of St. Chriſtopher's. It is of a circular form, almoſt twenty miles over either way, and has a great many good harbours: the governor uſually reſides at St. John's, the chief town. The produce is chiefly ſugar, ginger, cotton, pine-apples, plaintain, and other tropical fruits. *Antigua.*

6. Barbuda is a ſmall iſland lying fifteen miles north-eaſt of Montſerrat. The inhabitants apply themſelves chiefly to the breeding of cattle, and raiſing proviſions, *Barbuda.*

with which they supply the neighbouring islands. This island is the property of the Codrington family, who have a great number of Negroes here and in the island of Barbadoes. It was their ancestor colonel Christopher Codrington, governor and captain-general of Barbadoes, who, dying in 1710, gave two plantations in Barbadoes, and part of this island of Barbuda, valued at two thousand pounds per annum, to the society for propagating the gospel for the instruction of the Negroes in Barbadoes and the rest of the Caribbee Islands, in the Christian religion, and for erecting and endowing the college above mentioned in Barbadoes.

Anguilla. 7. Anguilla, about thirty miles long, and ten broad, is situate thirty miles north-west of St. Christopher's. The inhabitants, as at Barbuda, apply themselves chiefly to the feeding of cattle, planting of Indian corn, and other parts of husbandry.

Montserrat. 8. Montserrat is situate thirty miles south-west of Antigua, and affords sugar in proportion to its extent, being one of the smallest of the Caribbee Islands.

Dominica. 9. Dominica lies thirty miles north of Martinico. It is about forty miles long, and as many broad. Being before the late peace a neutral island, it served occasionally for wood and water.

St. Vincent. 10. Saint Vincent was another of these neutral islands: it lies fifty miles south-west of Barbadoes, and is about eight leagues in length, and six in breadth. There are several mountains in it, between which are very fruitful vallies. The timber on this island is very valuable, and there is a vast stock of all kinds. Indigo thrives here surprisingly.

Tobago. 11. Tobago, the third of these neutral islands, confirmed to Great Britain, is fifty-two miles long, and twelve broad, and lies one hundred and twenty miles south of the island of Barbadoes. The soil is fruitful, and capable of producing whatever the sugar islands are remarkable for.

Granada and the Granadines. 12. Granada, the most southerly of the Caribbee Islands, is situate one hundred and fifty miles south-west of Barbadoes. It is about twenty-five leagues in circuit, and has a pretty good fort. The soil is excellent, producing sugar, indigo, cotton, rocou, and casset. This was one of our conquests in the late war, and by the peace confirmed to us with the Granadines, which lie to the south of Granada, but are very inconsiderable.

Bahama Islands. 13. The Bahama Islands are situate in the Atlantic Ocean to the north of the island of Cuba, stretching from the north-west to the south-east. The island of Bahama, which gives name to the rest, is about twenty-five leagues distant

diſtant from the continent of Florida. It is about fifty miles in length, but very narrow, ſcarce any where ſixteen, and in many places not half ſo broad, but very pleaſant and fruitful, the air temperate and ſerene, the ſoil remarkably rich, and the country every where abounding with brooks and ſprings of water. Though theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of the new world, Columbus arriving firſt at Manguana, which is one of them, and to which he gave the name of St. Salvador, yet the Spaniards never thought of ſettling there, and it was long before we had any knowlege of them. Captain William Sayle, in the year 1667, being bound to Carolina, was forced by a ſtorm among theſe iſlands, which gave him an opportunity of examining them carefully, particularly a large iſland, to which at that time he gave his own name, and it is that which has been ſince known by the name of Providence. At his return to England, he reported the benefit they might prove to the ſtate. Accordingly grants of them were made to proprietors, but the government was reſerved in the hands of the crown. None of them, however, except Providence, Lucays, and Harbour Iſland, are yet ſettled; which ſeems ſurpriſing, as they would certainly prove of the greateſt advantage to Great Britain, if they were fully ſettled and properly cultivated.

Bermuda or the Summer Iſlands.

14. Bermuda, or the Summer Iſlands, were ſo called from Sir George Summer, who loſt his ſhip on their rocks, in 1609. They are ſituate in the Atlantic Ocean, in 65 deg. of weſt longitude, and 32 deg. 20 min. of north latitude, ſeven or eight hundred miles eaſt of Charles Town in South Carolina; being a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, in the ſhape of a ſhepherd's crook, containing twenty thouſand acres, walled round with rocks. No part of the world enjoys a purer air, or more temperate climate, or is more remarkable for health, and plenty of fleſh, fiſh, poultry, fruits, herbs, and roots. The chief town is St. George, in the north-weſt part of the iſland, containing one thouſand houſes. Here were fine groves of cedar, with which they build their houſes, and their ſwift ſailing ſloops, which they ſell to the ſugar iſlands, as well as proviſions. There are three clergymen in the iſland, well provided for with a handſome revenue; and Dr. Berkeley, late biſhop of Cloyne, was formerly about erecting a college here, for the education of the Indians; but the deſign miſcarried.

Cape Breton.

15. Cape Breton is ſituate between 61 and 62 deg. of weſt longitude, and between 45 and 48 deg. of north latitude, in the Atlantic Ocean, in North America, ſeparated from Acadia, or New Scotland, by the narrow ſtreight of Canſo: and is about one hundred miles in length, and

fifty in breadth. This island was one of our conquests in the beginning of the late war, Louisbourg, its fortress, with the island of St. John, and its other appurtenances, being surrendered by capitulation on the 26th of July, 1758. It was before taken from the French by the English in 1745; but restored to the French by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748. To avoid expence, and prevent the French from again settling upon it, all the fortifications of Louisbourg were demolished from the last taking of that place. This island was of infinite consequence to the French, by its several good harbours, and the excellent fishery they had on the coast; they also commanded the navigation to Canada by the river of St. Lawrence. Abstracting from these conveniencies, the country is barren, producing scarce any corn or grass, and but little wood: it is also excessive cold, and covered with snow in winter, and subject to great fogs even in summer.

Newfoundland. 16. Newfoundland, this island is of a triangular form, about as big as Ireland, and three hundred and ten leagues, or nine hundred and thirty miles in circuit. On the north it is separated from Terra de Labrador, or New Britain, by the straight of Belleisle, which runs north-east, and is about twenty-three miles over in its narrowest part. On the west it has the gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the south and east, the Atlantic Ocean. Cape Race, or Raz, the most southerly part of the island, lies in north latitude 46 deg. 45 min. the most northern point is in latitude 51 deg. 30 min. so that the greatest length of the island, from south to north, is two hundred and eighty miles. Cape Rye, its most westerly point, lies in north latitude 47 deg. 35 min. and, between it and Cape Race, the distance is about eighty leagues, or two hundred and forty miles.

Authors differ widely in the account they give of its climate and produce. Some assert, that the sky is almost constantly clear and serene; that here are beautiful forests and verdant fields, covered with strawberries, &c. that the bushes are nothing but raspberries of a delicious taste and flavour; that here are exceeding good waters, very fruitful vales; and that there is here a kind of rye, which grows naturally without culture, and is very nourishing; and that the island abounds with all sorts of game. Others, on the contrary, represent it as a frightful country, and assert that the whole island is almost one continued rock, &c. In order to reconcile these opposite descriptions, says F. Charlevoix, we must distinguish the different parts of the isle, which have been visited by Europeans. It is true, adds he, that the southern and eastern coasts do not commonly

monly enjoy a very ſerene ſky, becauſe of their neighbourhood to the great bank, which is almoſt conſtantly covered with a thick fog. But in the northern and weſtern parts the ſky is very clear, both in ſummer and winter. As for the innermoſt parts of the country, there is nothing certain concerning them, it being almoſt impoſſible to travel far into the iſland. Among thoſe who have travelled farthest, ſome, perhaps, may have obſerved beautiful vales, whilſt others, who went another way, could perceive nothing but ſteep and barren rocks.

There are a great many fine bays all round Newfoundland, but thoſe on the eaſt and ſouth coaſts are beſt known. Thoſe on the eaſt ſide are Bonaviſta, Trinity, and Conception, which ſtretch themſelves to the ſouth-weſt; Torbay, Capelin, St. John's Harbour, the Bay of Bulls, Freſh-water Bay, and others; for there is no ſhore in the world better accommodated with excellent harbours: and the bays on the eaſt and ſouth coaſt are ſo near each other, that nothing could be more commodious for an eaſy communication, were there inhabitants that wanted it. On the ſouth there are the bays of Biſcay, St. Mary's, Placentia, bay of Fortune, or St. Peter's, and the bay of Deſpair, going from eaſt to weſt; but the moſt famous and conſiderable of them is the bay of Placentia.

The chief and almoſt only trade and buſineſs here, is fiſh; whereof there is ſuch plenty in this ſea, that all the world almoſt might be ſupplied from it, all ſorts being taken here in immenſe quantities; but the principal fiſhery here regarded is that of cod, whereof, at leaſt, five hundred ſail of ſhips are laden every year for France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, England, and other parts. The main fiſhery is on the great bank, and on the other banks about this iſland, as alſo all along the coaſt. The fiſhing ſeaſon is from ſpring till September. Train oil is drawn off the livers of the fiſh, which are thrown up in heaps when the cod is cured: and from thence is drawn all the oil that comes from Newfounnland.

The great bank of Newfoundland is a vaſt mountain concealed under water. According to the moſt accurate ſea-charts, its ſouthern extremity lies in or about the 41ſt degree of north latitude, and its northern extremity in 49 deg. 25 min. However, thoſe two extremities are ſo pointed, that it is not eaſy to mark its limits that way. Its greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt, is about ninety marine Engliſh leagues, between 42 deg. 30 min. and 51 deg. 30 min. of longitude weſt from London. The depth in various places is commonly five, twenty-five, and ſixty fathom. But whatever be the dimenſions or figure of this bank, it

is

is covered with a vaſt quantity of ſhells, and ſeveral kinds of fiſh of all ſizes, moſt of which ſerve for food to the cod-fiſh, whoſe number here ſeems to equal the grains of ſand on the bank itſelf. Between two and three hundred veſſels have loaded here annually for two centuries, and yet this vaſt conſumption has produced no alteration in their plenty.

The next bank is called the Green Bank. The charts make it about one hundred and twenty miles long, and about fifty miles over, where broadeſt: it lies off the ſouth coaſt of Newfoundland. The other banks are not conſiderable enough to deſerve particular notice, and their ſhape and ſituation may be ſeen, in ſome good ſea chart, whoſe proper buſineſs it is to deſcribe ſands and ſoundings.

The great ſtrand, or drying place for fiſh, which is about a league in extent, lies between two ſteep hills, one of which, on the ſouth-weſt, is ſeparated from the ſtrand by a ſmall rivulet, which runs out of the channel, and forms a kind of lake, called the little bay. Here they catch plenty of ſalmon. The great ſtrand may contain at once wherewithal to load threeſcore ſhips. There is another leſſer ſtrand for the uſe of the inhabitants, who fiſh all along the coaſt. On both theſe places fiſh may be laid to dry without danger.

The firſt ſettlements were made here by the Engliſh, in 1610; and the French were permitted to ſettle here in the reign of king Charles II. but were obliged to quit the iſland by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, only they were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern ſhores. About the cloſe of the late war, the French ſurpriſed this iſland, and took poſſeſſion by capitulation of St. John's, on the 27th of June, 1762; but were ſoon after compelled to leave it by our forces in September following. By the fifth article of the enſuing definitive treaty of peace, the ſubjects of France had a liberty of fiſhing and drying on a part of the coaſts of the iſland of Newfoundland, ſuch as is ſpecified in the thirteenth article of the treaty of Utrecht; alſo the liberty of fiſhing in the gulf of St. Lawrence at the diſtance of three leagues from all the coaſts belonging to Great Britain; and at the diſtance of fifteen leagues from the coaſts of the iſland of Cape Breton. The iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon were beſides ceded to them by the ſixth article, to ſerve as a ſhelter for their fiſhermen; but they were not to fortify theſe iſlands. By the eighteenth article of the ſaid peace, his catholic majeſty deſiſted from any pretenſions in favour of his ſubjects, to the right of fiſhing in the neighbourhood of the iſland of Newfoundland.

There

There are two ſorts of trade in regard to the Newfoundland fiſhery; the one, and perhaps the more profitable, conſidering the riſque as leſs, is that driven by the fiſhers themſelves, who only victual and man their ſhips at Biddeford, Pool, Dartmouth, and other weſtern ports chiefly, and go away early to fiſh, having the hands and the ſhips neceſſary. The other is, when the maſters ſail directly to Newfoundland, to purchaſe cargoes of fiſh of the above mentioned fiſhers, or of the inhabitants at their ſtages. Theſe traders purchaſe their cargoes with bills of exchange, at two months date, which are very ſeldom proteſted. The fiſh that is ſhipped for Great Britain and Ireland is inconſiderable in compariſon of what is ſent to Portugal, Spain, and Italy. Some fiſh is alſo ſhipped for Barbadoes, and the other ſugar iſlands. *State of the Newfoundland trade.*

Beſides the great profit which particular merchants make by this fiſhery, conſidering the ſeamen it conſtantly breeds, the tradeſmen it maintains, and the ſhipping it requires, the increaſe of the national ſtock is no leſs than three or four hundred thouſand pounds yearly; for a ſhip of one hundred tons, with the charge only of victual, and fiſhing-tackle for twenty hands, ſhall bring to market in Portugal, Spain, or Italy, three thouſand pounds worth of fiſh, and clear frequently not leſs than two thouſand pounds, to the proprietors; ſo that one hundred and fifty ſuch ſhips only will clear three hundred thouſand pounds, and conſequently increaſe ſo much the public and private ſtock.

If we were to pay due attention to our fiſheries at Newfoundland, the gulf and river of St. Lawrence, the coaſt of Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton, and here at home to our herring-fiſhery on the coaſt of Scotland; we ſhould have no room to envy the wealth or opulence of any other nation. Theſe are true mines of greater value, as well as cheaper wrought, than thoſe of Mexico and Peru: and indeed, they ſeem as if they would fully anſwer all the purpoſes and exigencies of the nation.

The fiſheries in Holland are well known not only to have been the firſt riſe of that republic, but the grand prop and ſupport of all their commerce and navigation. This branch of trade is of ſuch unſpeakable concern to the Dutch, that in their public prayers, it is appointed to be mentioned, when they pray to the Supreme Being, that it would pleaſe him to bleſs the government, the lords, the ſtates, and alſo their great and ſmall fiſheries.

Whence, it requires no argument to enforce the neceſſity of our exerting ourſelves in this valuable branch of commerce; for, if other nations ſhall enjoy ſo certain and ſo important a nurſery for ſeamen, and we ſhall neglect

the same, it does not require the gift of prophecy, to foresee, who must one day obtain the superiority of maritime power.

Upon this point then seems to turn, in a great measure, the very being and security of this kingdom, with regard to its freedom and independency; and what more need be urged to rouze the British nation, to leave nothing undone, which ought to be otherwise, for the advancement of our fisheries of every kind?

With respect to those which are upon our own coast of Great Britain and Ireland, and on the coast of our American plantations, no nation can pretend to deprive us of our natural rights of fishing in these parts; and, if we shall think proper to indulge other states with the like privileges of fishing upon our own coasts, and reaping unspeakable advantages thereby, is it not the worst of policy, is it not superlative infatuation, to suffer other rival nations to grow rich and powerful by this commerce at our own doors, while we shamefully neglect it?

However adviseable, we say, it may be to tolerate and connive at the fisheries of foreigners upon our coast, yet, this, which is only a matter of favour and indulgence, should not be construed as a matter of right; for it seems something unjust and unreasonable, that the fish of our own seas should be caught and engrossed by strangers, in prejudice of our natural right, since it will appear, we apprehend, that his majesty of Great Britain, notwithstanding the indulgence granted for a promiscuous fishing in the British seas, has a right to resume his authority, and permit none to fish therein, without his special licence, as hath been heretofore obtained from his predecessors for many ages: nor can it be esteemed unreasonable, if, in consequence of such right in the crown of Great Britain, an absolute interdiction should be made, to prevent such foreigners taking the bread out of our mouths.

It is greatly to be doubted, whether any nation would grant us the like privileges, had nature given them the same advantages. But it is a received truth, that the sovereignty of the British seas is the most precious jewel of the British crown, and next, under God, the principal means of our wealth, and our security as a free people; and this certainly appertaineth to the kings of Great Britain by immemorial prescription, continual usage, and possession, the acknowlegement of all our neighbouring states, and the sense of the municipal laws of the kingdom: and this right hath been insisted on many hundred years by the kings of England.

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mandois to the crown domain in ſpite of the count of Flanders, 4. The kings of France and England, being reconciled by the pope, take the croiſs, 5. A new quarrel between the kings, in which Richard, count of Poitou ſides with Philip againſt his father, ib. Peace once more reſtored, which is immediately followed by king Henry's death, 6. Philip, and the young king of England, prepare to go to the Holy Land againſt the infidels, 7. Tranſactions in Sicily during the reſidence of the two kings, Philip and Richard, in that iſland, 8. Continual quarrels between Philip and Richard end at laſt in the former's coming home, 9. Philip eſpouſes Ingerberge, a Daniſh princeſs, in hopes of allying the Danes againſt England, 10. Enters into alliance with John againſt his brother king Richard, 11. Richard paſſes with an army into France, and gains ſome advantages over Philip, 12. One of theſe was taking the French chancery, whereby all the titles of the crown fell into the poſſeſſion of Richard, 13. Peace concluded upon equal terms, 14. A new war, however, breaks out between the monarchs of France and England, which is terminated by a peace under the mediation of the count of Flanders, ib. King Philip compelled to return to his queen Ingerberge, with whom he had been diſguſted, 15. Death, on the occaſion, of Agnes de Merania, 16. Enters into a war with John, king of England, which is ended by a marriage, 17. That prince, by the murder of his nephew, affords Philip an opportunity of ſeizing Normandy, 18. Methods uſed by Philip to extend the power of the crown at the expence of the great vaſſals, 19. From the ſame motive connives at the pope's publiſhing a cruſade againſt the count of Thouloufe, 20. Is deceived in his hopes of gaining England in quality of a papal champion, 21. Finds himſelf, on the contrary, attacked by king John, and a moſt powerful confederacy, 22. The important victory at Bouvines, 23. The king's reaſons for admitting a truce for five years, 24. Lewis, heir-apparent to Philip, is invited by the barons to receive the crown of England, 25. Lands there accordingly, but his efforts proving unſucceſsful, he is obliged to quit the kingdom upon terms, 26. Is ſent againſt the Albigeois, 27. Death of Philip Auguſtus, 28. Character, ib. His perſon deſcribed, 29. His wives and iſſue, ib. Is ſucceeded by Lewis VIII. who abſolutely refuſes to execute the treaty of London, 30. Reſolves to proſecute his father's deſign, which was a total expulſion of the Engliſh from France, ib. Enters into the croiſade againſt the Albigenſes, and dies at the ſiege of Avignon, 31. Lewis IX. afterwards ſtyled St. Lewis, ſucceeds his father, under the tutelage of queen Blanch, 32. Confederacy againſt the queen-regent, and true motives of thoſe who compoſed it, 33. Is revived, when it appeared to be diſſipated, 34. They attack the count of Champagne, 35. Queen Blanch's regency no prejudice to the king or kingdom, ib. Yet expoſes that princeſs to great cenſure, 36. The count de Bretagne continues his practices till he is humbled, 37. New intrigues, in hopes of ſupport from Henry III. of England, 38. King Lewis defeats twice the confederacy, and thereby ſettles his authority on a ſolid foundation, 39. Methods taken by him for that purpoſe, and his caution in regard to the pope, 40. Reſolves to make an expedition into the Eaſt, but provides for it with extreme caution, 41. The army winters in Cyprus, reimbarks for Egypt, and lands there without oppoſition, 42. Advances towards Cairo, is ſurrounded, beaten, and at length taken priſoner by the infidels, 43. Lewis bears this misfortune with great fortitude, notwithſtanding extreme ill uſage, ib. Makes a treaty with the infidels, recovers his liberty, and evacuates Egypt, 44. Reſtores the affairs of Syria, while his own concerns in France ſuffer by his abſence, 45. Upon the death of queen Blanch, takes a reſolution of returning into France, 46. Applies himſelf with great diligence to regulate all things in his realm that had run into diſorder in his abſence, 47. His brother Charles of Anjou declared king of the Two Sicilies by the pope, 48. Charles paſſes over into Italy, defeats Mainfroi and Conradine, by which he acquires the crown, 49. King Lewis enters into a new croiſade, and dies before the city of Tunis in Africa, 50. His extraordinary character, 51. Numerous iſſue, ib. Is ſucceeded by his ſon Philip the Hardy, who brings back the remains of the army to France, 52 He compels the count de Foix to ſurrender at diſcretion, and thereby humbles his vaſſals, who had given law to all his predeceſſors, 53. Marries his ſon to the heireſs of Navarre, and receives the homage of Edward I. of England, ib. Diſgraces his favourite la Broſſe, who ends his days ignominiouſly on a gibbet, 55. The revolt of the ſubjects of Charles of Anjou, and the famous Sicilian veſpers, 56. Philip invades Catalonia, takes Gironne, and dies in his retreat at Perpignan, 57. His wives

wives and iſſue, 58. Is ſucceeded by his ſon, Philip le Bel, 59. Who quarrels with Edward I. of England, and refuſes all propoſals of accommodation, 60. Through a breach of faith, brings on a war with king Edward, 61. Conſequences and iſſue of this war till concluded by a truce, 62. Original of the diſputes between this monarch and Boniface VIII. 63. Revival of their differences, and methods taken by the king and pope to ſupport their reſpective powers, 64. Pope Boniface, ſeized by the French partizans, dies of chagrin for his ill uſage, 65. Source of the war in Flanders; that country re-annexed to the crown, and a rebellion thereon, 66. The new war becomes very ſerious, and the army commanded by the count d'Artois, beaten, 67. King Philip enters Flanders with the whole force of his dominions, 68. Gains a great victory, but thinks it prudent, notwithſtanding, to conclude a peace, 69. Benedict XI. abſolves king Philip, dies, and is ſucceeded by the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, ſtyled Clement V. 70. This pope is crowned at Lyons, and removes the papal reſidence from Rome to Avignon, 71. A reſolution taken to humble the powerful order of the knights Templars, 72. That order ſuppreſſed in the council of Vienne, 73. The grand-maſter and chief officers burnt, and the reſt of the knights of the order diſperſed, 74. The affairs of king Philip take an ill turn at home and abroad, 75. And he takes ſome domeſtic misfortunes ſo much to heart that it brings him to the grave, 76. His character, 77. Lewis X. ſurnamed Hutin, ſucceeds his father, and meets with much diſſatisfaction, ib. He ſuffers his uncle, the count de Valois, to cauſe his miniſter to be put to death, 78. The ſieur de Marigni is regretted as the victim of count de Valois's cruelty, 79. The king makes an unſucceſsful campaign in Flanders, and dies ſuddenly at his return, 80. His wives and iſſue, ib. Philip, count of Poictiers, is declared regent, in ſpite of the intrigues of the count de Valois, 81. And upon the death of John, ſon of Lewis Hutin, king, in virtue of the Salique laws, and regent of Navarre, by the ſtyle of Philip V. ſurnamed le Long, or the Tall, 82. New troubles on the point of breaking out, which are prevented by the king's firmneſs, 83. The pope interpoſes, in order to diſſuade the king from an expedition to the Holy Land, 84. Strange diſorders in France, occaſioned by a plague, attributed to poiſoning the waters, 85. The king dies, and though a prince of great merit, is little regretted, 86. Is ſucceeded by Charles the Fair, his brother, who meets with no oppoſition, 87. A war breaks out with the king of England, which is ſtrangely managed on both ſides, 88. Iſabel, the king's ſiſter, contrives the deſtruction of Edward II. her huſband, 89. Charles fails in his attempt to gain the German princes to elect him emperor, 90. He marries a third time his couſin german, in hopes of male iſſue, 91. He dies, after a ſhort reign, and leaves his queen pregnant, which occaſions a new regency, 92. Remarks on the hiſtory of France during this period of the third race, 93.

France, hiſtory of, containing the reigns of the French monarchs of the houſe of Valois, from the reign of Philip VI. to that of Charles VIII. included, in whom ended the direct line of Philip de Valois, xx. 94. The regency claimed by king Edward III. of England, againſt Philip de Valois, but adjudged to the latter, ib. Who, upon the queen's being delivered of a daughter, is acknowleged and crowned king, 95. Aſſiſts Lewis, count of Flanders, in reducing the Flemings, whom he beats at Caſſel, 96. Edward III. comes over into France, and does homage to king Philip at Amiens, 97. Is obliged to make a declaration ſatisfactory to the French court, though diſpleaſing to him, 98. Sentence of the parliament againſt Robert d'Artois, who thereupon retires into England, 99. Philip and Edward both prepare for war, though ſecretly, and under various pretences, 100. The war breaks out, and Edward is prevailed on to conclude a truce, 101. In order to bring over the Flemings, Edward aſſumes the title and arms of France, 102. Diſpute about the ſucceſſion to Bretagne revives the war before the cloſe of the truce, 103. Robert d'Artois ſlain in the war with Charles de Blois in Bretagne, 104. King Edward, after an unſucceſsful campaign in Bretagne, makes a pacification, 105. King Philip, by an act of ſeverity, affords Edward an opportunity to declare the truce void, 106. At firſt, the events of the war are rather favourable to king Philip, 107. Philip meditates the invaſion of England, 108. Edward, on the other hand, lands his troops at la Hogue, and ſpreads deſolation on every ſide as far as within twenty miles of Paris, 109. Philip aſſembles his allies, and the whole force of his realm, in order to revenge this inſult, 110. Is defeated at the famous battle of Creſſy, in Ponthieu, ib. The important town of Calais is

taken by Edward, 111. Six of the chief burghers, saved from being hanged by the queen, ib. The war not more fortunate for Philip on any side, 112. By the interposition of the pope, Edward yields to a truce, which he afterwards prolonged for three years, ib. King Philip prevents the match of the dauphin of Viennois, by interposing his grandson Charles; and the dauphin, hereupon embracing the order of St. Dominic, relinquished at the same time his territories to Charles, ib. The king marries again, but dies in less than a year after, 113. Little regretted, his person being deemed unlucky, ib. His son, John, duke of Normandy, succeeds him, ib. And sullies the beginning of his reign with the death of the constable Rodolph, count of Eu and Guines, 114. The truce ill kept, yet renewed by the two crowns, under the mediation of the pope, 115. Charles le Mauvais, king of Navarre, causes excessive embarrassments in France, 116. King Edward passes over to Calais, and returns without doing any thing more than ruining the country, 117. King John arrests the king of Navarre, and causes some of his confidants to be beheaded in his presence, 118. Is defeated and taken prisoner by the prince of Wales at the battle of Poictiers, ib. Dismal situation of France, and the great intestine troubles that ensue on the king's absence, 119. New disturbances, by means of an insurrection of the peasants, 120. The public tranquillity gradually restored by opening the gates of Paris to the regent, 121. King of Navarre saves France and the regent, by making a peace on reasonable terms, 122. Usage of king John in England, and convention made by him, which the states refused to ratify, 123. This gave occasion to Edward's returning to France, as soon as the truce expired, ib. Famous treaty of Bretigny, 124. King John recovers his liberty, and returns to Paris, 125. The kingdom of France once more ransacked and plundered by the Tard-Venus, or Late-Comers, 126. King John bestows the duchy of Burgundy on his son Philip, and declares him first prince of France, 127. Makes a tour to Avignon, and at the persuasion of Urban V. takes the cross, 128. His son, the duke of Anjou, escapes from England, where he was an hostage, and refuses to return, 129. King John hereupon goes over again to England, and dies there at the palace of the Savoy, 130. His character and issue by his queens, ib. Is succeeded by his eldest son Charles V. who assumes the title of king with very little augmentation of power, 131. But by his prudential maxims restores France, ib. Publishes an edict of resumption, and uses other means of supplying his treasury, 132. The Grand Companies ravage France, and reduce the king and his subjects to the utmost distress, 134. Bertrand du Guesslin engages them in an expedition into Spain with the king's consent, 135. The event of this affair was the dethroning of don Pedro the Cruel, who was restored by the Black Prince, but again dispossessed by don Henry, 136. Charles's domestic administration restores the French monarchy imperceptibly, 137. He begins to controul the Black Prince in Guienne, and prepares for a war, 138. By the assistance of his estates Charles finds himself in a condition to begin a war, 139. By his management it is carried on with advantage on all sides, 140. Methods taken by him to strengthen his alliances, 141. Don Henry of Castile sends a fleet to the assistance of France, which does great service, 142. The constable du Guesslin conquers great part of the English possessions, 143. Duke of Bretagne being pushed by the king, quits his dominions, and serves under the English, 145. Charles consents to a truce, and makes use of it to improve the domestic state of France, 146. He avails himself also of the death of the prince of Wales, and of king Edward, to ruin the affairs of the English, 148. The emperor Charles IV. visits the king at Paris, who makes a new treaty with the king of Navarre, 149. The English begin to restore their affairs, 150. Death and character of the king, 151. His issue by his queen, ib. Is succeeded by his son Charles VI. under the tutelage of his uncle, 152. Public affairs fall into confusion, 153. The people in Languedoc and Paris rise in arms, and are punished in purse, ib. Death of the regent, the duke of Anjou, 154. The duke of Burgundy, who had now almost the sole management of the king, carries him with him to act against the revolted Flemings, ib. The king chastises those who, in his absence had raised tumults in Paris, 155. The duke of Burgundy established in Flanders, 156. The young king has an interview with the princess Isabella of Bavaria, and declares immediately his resolution of marrying her, which proved equally fatal to himself and to his subjects, 157. He proceeds to Flanders with expedition, and sends relief to the Scots, 158. An invasion on England fails, ib. The duke of Bretagne seizes the constable de Clisson, and afterwards releases him, 159. Charles VI. sets himself at liberty and his subjects by assuming the government, and naming a new

a new council, 160. Makes a tour to Avignon, and in his return viſits Languedoc, and redreſſes the people's grievances, 161. The dukes of Berry and Burgundy retain a ſtrong ſenſe of their being excluded the government, 162. Peter Craon attempts to aſſaſſinate the conſtable de Cliſſon, and leaves him for dead, 163. The king, marching into Bretagne, in queſt of Craon, is attacked with a ſudden phrenſy, 164. His indiſpoſition is augmented by another ſingular and unfortunate accident, 165. His diſeaſe returns with great violence, 166. He accommodates all diſputes with king Richard II. who eſpouſes his daughter, 167. The count of Nevers and the conſtable d'Eu go with a corps of troops againſt the Turks, but are defeated, 168. The emperor makes a tour to Paris, and Henry IV. ſupplants Richard II. in England, 169. The duke of Bretagne dies, and leaves his family to the care of Oliver de Cliſſon, 170. The duke of Orleans diſpoſſeſſes his uncles of power, and in his turn is diſpoſſeſſed by the duke of Burgundy, 171. The duke of Burgundy ſecures the duke of Bretagne and his brethren to the French intereſt, 172. Beginning of thoſe diſputes between the houſes of Orleans and Burgundy, which proved ſo fatal to France, 173. Duke of Orleans murdered by the command of the duke of Burgundy, 174. Is forced thereupon to withdraw, but avows and juſtifies the murder in a manifeſto, 175. The duke of Burgundy returns, and forces the diſeaſed king to grant him a pardon, 176. Diſmal fate of the ſieur Montague, after being many years at the head of the finances, 177. His ſentence afterwards reverſed, 178. The duke of Burgundy aſſumes, as governor of the dauphin, the direction of the kingdom, 179. Reſentment between the two factions runs higher, and is productive of greater miſchiefs than ever, 180. The king puts himſelf at the head of an army againſt his uncle and nephew, 181. A reconciliation takes place, 182. The Burgundians become obnoxious to the dauphin Lewis, duke of Guienne, 183. The dauphin brings back the duke of Orleans and his friends, 184. The duke of Burgundy ſets on foot freſh intrigues, 185. The king marches againſt the duke of Burgundy, having declared him a public enemy, 186. A pacification takes place, 187. Henry V. negociates with Charles in order to diſcover the ſtate of affairs in France, 188. He makes a deſcent in Normandy, takes Harfleur, and marches towards Calais, 189. Henry, forced by the French to fight, gains a complete victory at Agincourt, 190. The duke of Burgundy labours to turn the public misfortune to his own advantage, 191. The count de Armagnac ruins the faction of Burgundy, and reſtores the king's affairs ſurpriſingly, 192. By his means the queen is baniſhed, who demands thereupon the protection of the duke of Burgundy, 193. Henry V. lands with a new army in Normandy, and conquers a great part of that province, ib. A general ſpirit of falſehood and deceit prevails through all courts at this period, and deſtroys all credit, 194. Paris ſurpriſed by the duke of Burgundy's troops, and the conſtable de Armagnac murdered by the populace, 195. Inſolence of the common hangman upon the occaſion, 196. The queen and the duke of Burgundy treat with Henry about a marriage and a peace, 197. In this confuſion the dauphin enters into a treaty with the duke of Burgundy, 198. Who is murdered by his connivance at leaſt, if not command, at a conference at Montereau, 199. By the treaty of Troye, Henry V. of England, is declared regent and heir of France, and the dauphin Charles is proclaimed an enemy to the ſtate and diſinherited, 200. Henry takes every method to ſecure the poſſeſſion and the ſucceſſion, while the dauphin labours to vindicate his right to the regency and to the crown, 201. Katherine, queen to Henry, goes over with him into England to be crowned, ib. And Henry obtains from his parliament a large ſum of money, to enable him to complete the conqueſt of France, though this conſideration was deemed rather hurtful to England, 202. The Scots forces ſent to the dauphin, under the command of the earl of Buchan, defeat the duke of Orleans at Vauge, 203. The kings Henry and Charles both die, and leave France in a miſerable and diſtracted condition, 204. The ſecuring the duchy of Normandy to England, particularly recommended by Henry before his death, ib. Perſon and character of Charles, 205. His iſſue by his queen Iſabel, ib. The ſtate of France under her two kings Henry and Charles, who are both proclaimed, 206. Character of Charles VII. ſtyled the Victorious, ib. Henry VI. a child then about ten months old, under the tuition of the duke of Bedford, regent, ib. Earl of Buchan defeated, and made priſoner in the battle of Crevant by the Engliſh, 207. Charles endeavours to draw aſſiſtance from ſovereign princes to ſupport his title, 208. His troops beaten at the battle of Verneuil, in which the conſtable and the earl of Douglas are killed, 209. This reduces the affairs of Charles VII.

VII. into dismal condition, in which he supports himself by his steady temper and engaging qualities, 210. The duke of Bretagne, and his brother the earl of Richmond, reconciled to king Charles, 211. The earl of Richmond, constable of France, governs the king and kingdom, 212. The earl of Salisbury besieges Orleans, and is killed before that place, 213. Method of investing at this time very rude, 214. The famous battle of Herrings, in which the French are beaten by sir John Fastolfe, 215. The Maid of Orleans first relieves, and then raises the siege of that city, 216. She performs many great things, and is highly esteemed, and gratefully rewarded, by the king, who, at her pressing instances, is solemnly crowned at Rheims, 217. Is however taken in a sally at the siege of Compeigne, and is delivered to the English, 218. Carried to Rouen, and burnt there, as a sorceress and a witch, while Henry VI. was in that city, 219. Henry crowned afterwards king of France, in the cathedral of Notre Dame, at Paris, ib. The constable seizes la Tremouille, the king's prime minister, 220. Charles conciliates his own inclinations to ease and pleasure, with the interests of his government, 221. By the arts of the duke of Orleans, engages his competitor Henry VI. to consent to a treaty, 222. Concludes the famous treaty of Arras with Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, 223. The city of Paris is delivered to Charles VII. who, from this time, is considered as monarch of France, 224. Philip, duke of Burgundy, besieges Calais, but is constrained to raise that siege by the duke of Gloucester, ib. The king makes his entry into his capital, 225. Charles lays the foundation of the liberties of the Gallican church, 226. A treaty with England, which, in the end, comes to nothing, 227. The dauphin concurs with the malecontents in the sedition called the Praguerie, ib. Is forced to return and submit, 228. Charles distinguishes himself in reducing Pontoise, 229. New troubles excited in the kingdom by the dukes of Orleans, Burgundy, and Bretagne, 230. The king, by taking off the duke of Orleans, dissipates the league of the malecontents, ibid. The dauphin relieves Harfleur, and then reduces the count de Armagnac, who had revolted, 231. A truce with England, and the armies in France disbanded according to the king's plan, 232. Charles resolves to improve this interval of peace to restore his domestic affairs, 233. The English unaccountably break the truce when their concerns were in great confusion, 234. Charles seizes this opportunity, and reduces Rouen and great part of Normandy, 235. Completes the conquest of that duchy in the beginning of the year ensuing, 236. Lewis, dauphin, retires into Guienne, and affects an independency of his father, 237. His resentment fatal to the king's mistress, Agnes de Sorel, 238. The count de Dunois, now count de Longueville, reduces Guienne in the space of one campaign, 239. Charles makes a sudden peace with the duke of Savoy, in order to recover Bourdeaux, 240. Earl of Shrewsbury slain in the battle of Castillon, which decides the fate of Guienne, 241. The dauphin, having in vain attempted an insurrection, demands the duke of Burgundy's protection, 242. Who, waving his request, endeavours to reconcile him to the king, 243. Conspiracy, by the duke of Alençon, to bring the English over again into Normandy, 244. The duke of Alençon convicted, but not executed, ib. Death of the duke of Bretagne, 245. Charles reduces the government in Dauphiné back again to its ancient form, 246. The king exceedingly grieved by the dauphin's conduct, 247. He dies through want of sustenence, for fear of being poisoned, 248. His character and conduct, 249. His issue by his queen, Mary of Anjou, and by Agnes de Sorel, his mistress, 250. Inscription on his monument, ib. Accession of his son Lewis XI. and coronation, 251. His extraordinary proceedings, at the beginning of his reign, contrary to the duke of Burgundy's advice, 252. His ascendency over other powers not owing to his policy, but his good fortune, 253. Redeems the towns upon the river Somme from the duke of Burgundy, 254. Attempts to seize the persons of that duke, and his son the count de Charolois, but miscarries, 255. Manner in which the confederacy for the public good was conducted, 256. Battle of Montl'heri, in which both parties have the skill to get themselves beaten, 257. War for the public good ended, 258. Lewis, by his arts, recovers almost all he had been by force obliged to yield, 259. Death of Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, who is succeeded by Charles the Hardy, or the Terrible, 260. The assembly of Tours, in which the king turns the specious phrase of the public good on his enemies, 261. He reduces the duke of Bretagne to a necessity of making a new treaty on his terms, 262. Throws himself into the hands of the duke of Burgundy, who treats him in the same manner, 263. The perfidious practices of cardinal Balue and

and the bishop of Verdun discovered, 264. Both of them punished with unprecedented severity, 265. Assembly of nobles at Tours, by whose advice the king declares war against the duke of Burgundy, 266. Who, finding himself hard pushed, demands a peace, 267. Truce concluded for a year, 268. Death of the duke of Guienne, and the rejecting of the peace with the duke of Burgundy, 269. Who thereupon publishes a manifesto against the king, and vigorously renews the war, 270. Being disappointed in his views, concludes a truce, and discovers the constable's treason to the king, ib. The duke of Burgundy is diverted from France, by making war in the empire, 271. Edward IV. in consequence of several alliances with the duke of Burgundy, invades France, 272. Finding himself deceived by his allies, concludes a treaty with Lewis, 273. The duke of Burgundy, though much offended with this step, makes soon after a like treaty, 274. He runs headlong into a war, by which his treasures are exhausted, and his force broken. 275. The defeat and death of the duke gives Lewis an opportunity to seize Burgundy, 276. His stratagems concerning the young duchess of Burgundy, 277. The duke of Nemours, a man covered with crimes, suffers for high treason, 278. The king manages his negociations with all his neighbours with equal dexterity and success, 279. Concludes a new treaty with the king of England, 280. Gains great advantages in the Low Countries, ib. Makes an alteration in the militia, ibid. Inherits the succession of the house of Anjou, 281. Death of the duchess of Burgundy, and the dauphin contracted to her daughter, ib. Death of Edward IV. of England, 282. Lewis retires to his palace of Plessis, near Tours, in a low and languishing condition, 283. His death and character, with the situation of his successor at the time of his decease, 284. He first used the title of most Christian king, which since passed to his successors, ibid. Was also the first of the French monarchs who was treated with the title of majesty, 285. Accession of his son Charles VIII. for whose government the dame de Beaujeu was named by the late king, her father, ibid. The states, assembled at Tours, confirm to her the administration, and give the king a large subsidy, 286. An insurrection raised by the duke of Orleans, quelled by the prudence of the duke de Beaujeu, 287. The earl of Richmond enabled, by the court of France, to make that expedition, which seated him on the English throne, by the title of Henry VII. 288. The duke of Orleans retires into Bretagne, and plunges the kingdom into a civil and foreign war, 289. The king invades Bretagne, and brings the duke into great danger and distress, 290. The French gain the victory of St. Aubin, in which the duke of Orleans and prince of Orange are made prisoners, 291. The duke of Bretagne, humbled by this defeat, concludes the treaty of Sable, 292. Henry VII. interposes, but to little purpose, in the affairs of Bretagne, 293. The king releases the prince of Orange, 294. Goes in person to Bourges to release the duke of Orleans, 295. Concludes treaties with all his neighbours, in order to his expedition into Italy, 296. Motives that induced Charles to embark in the war of Naples, 297. Prepares for war, 298. Almost as soon as he joins his forces, falls ill of the small-pox, and is constrained to stay at Ast, 299. Proceeds to Pavia, enters the city of Florence, and afterwards Rome in triumph, ib. He marches on to Naples, and makes his public entry in imperial robes, 300. The king returns into his dominions, and defeats the whole force of Italy assembled to bar his passage, 301. Some preparations for renewing the war in Italy rendered abortive, 302. Failings of Charles VIII. and their influence upon the administration of the affairs of the kingdom, 303. He is struck with an apoplexy, of which he dies, 304. His person, character, and issue, 305. In him ended the direct line of Philip de Valois, 306.

France, history of, containing the reign of Lewis XII. surnamed the Father of his People, who, from duke of Orleans, became king, as presumptive heir to the crown, upon the demise of Charles VIII. and was the only monarch of his house, xx. 306. His noble and humane behaviour at his accession to all ranks of people, 307. His descent from Charles V. surnamed the Wise, ib. His marriage with Joan of France dissolved, upon which he espouses Anne of Bretagne, his predecessor's widow, 308. Precautions taken by Lewis to preserve peace at home, 309. The army of France conquers one part of the duchy of Milan, while the Venetians reduce the other, 310. The French compelled to evacuate the kingdom of Naples, and the king concludes a new treaty with Maximilian and Philip at Blois, 311. On the marriage of Ferdinand with his niece, Germaine de Foix, Lewis renounces, in favour of the children of that marriage, his pretensions to the kingdom of Naples, 312. He marries

ries the princeſs Claude to the count d'Angouleſme, 313. The king paſſes again into Italy, 314. Has an interview with Ferdinand the Catholic, 315. Enters into the league of Cambray, 316. Views of the ſeveral powers in the famous treaty of Cambray, 317. Lewis paſſes the mountains to command his army in perſon, attended by the cardinal d'Amboiſe, his miniſter, 318. The Venetians defeated at Aignadel, 319. Pope Julius abſolves the Venetians, and declares againſt France, 320. Is very near being taken by the chevalier Bayard, 321. Marſhal Trivulce commands the French army, and puſhes the pope and his allies, 322. Gaſton de Foix, duke of Nemours, takes Bologna, routs the Venetians, and recovers Breſcia, 323. Battle of Ravenna, 324. The French recover the duchy of Milan, and loſe it again in a few weeks, 325. Henry VIII. invades France, 326. Takes Terouenne and Tournay, 327. Battle of the Spurs, ibid. Returns into England, 328. Burgundy invaded by the Swiſs, ib. Venetians beaten by the Spaniards, 329. King of Scots killed, ibid. The king marries his eldeſt daughter to his preſumptive heir, Francis count of Angouleſme, ib. On the death of his queen, Lewis makes peace with England, and marries the ſiſter of Henry VIII. 330. Queen Mary arrives in France, and is received with all poſſible magnificence, 331. Death and character of Lewis, xii. 332. His wives and iſſue, ib.

France, hiſtory of, from the reign of Francis I. to that of Henry III. included, in whom the branch of Valois was entirely extinguiſhed, xx. 334. Acceſſion of the count of Angouleſme, by the title of Francis I. ib. Deſcent of his houſe, 335. He paſſes the Alps into Italy, with a potent army, 336. Defeats the Swiſs at Marignano, 337. Has an interview with the pope at Bologna, where, to prevent a ſchiſm, he conſented to the Concordat, ib. Refuſes the title of emperor of the Eaſt, offered him by the pope, in order to engage him to turn his arms againſt the Turks, 338. The conſtable of Bourbon, after expelling the emperor out of Milan, is himſelf recalled, ib. Methods taken by Francis to increaſe his allies, and to ſecure his regal dominions, 339. He manages matters ſo as to recover Tournay, and to keep on good terms with England and Spain, 340. Shares jointly with the pope the ſpoils of the church, ib. Is competitor with Charles V. for the imperial crown; but, on the preference of Charles, becomes his irreconcileable enemy, 341. Interview between Francis and Henry VIII. 342. Francis cauſes the kingdom of Navarre to be conquered, which is loſt again ſoon after, 343. Cauſe of the war between Charles and Francis, or rather the pretext of that war, 344. It begins with no advantage on the ſide of Flanders, and the loſs of Milan, 245. More misfortunes, which produce inquiries, and theſe, inſtead of remedies, acts of injuſtice, 346. Henry VIII. being ſolicited for ſuccours, inſtead of granting them, declares war againſt France, 347. The conſtable Bourbon leaves France, and enters into the emperor's ſervice, 348. This deſertion of ſuch a perſon cauſes a general conſternation, 349. And has a very bad influence on affairs, 350. While France is attacked on every ſide, the king ſends a new army into Italy, 351. Cardinal de Medicis, who had ſucceeded Adrian VI. and aſſumed the title of Clement VII. is obſtructed in his views of making peace by cardinal Wolſey, 352. The king's affairs take a proſperous turn, upon which he makes a new expedition into Italy, 353. Inveſts and beſieges Pavia, which throws things again into diſorder, 354. The viceroy Lanoy, the marquis Peſcara, and the conſtable de Bourbon, concert the relief of Pavia, 355. The battle of Pavia, in which Francis was defeated, and taken priſoner, 356. Sad condition of France hereupon, 357. Singular conduct of Henry VIII. particularly in his propoſals to the emperor, 358. King Francis makes propoſitions which are rejected, and others propoſed which he rejects, 359. The ducheſs of Alençon, his ſiſter, comes to conſole, and, at the ſame time, to counſel him, 360. Francis ſigns at length the treaty of Madrid, 361. Meaſures taken by him to avoid complying with this treaty, and to recover his ſons, 362. The league for preſerving the tranquillity of Italy publicly proclaimed, 363. Odet de Foix, marſhal Lautrec, reduces Genoa, and a great part of the Milaneſe, 364. Francis and Charles defame each other, 365. New turn of affairs in Italy, 366. The cruel, as well as double dealing of Francis with his allies to the peace of Cambray, 367. Generous conduct of Henry VIII. towards Francis in reſpect of this treaty, 368. The children of Francis delivered, and his queen brought into France, ib. Francis obtains the glorious title of Father and Reſtorer of Letters, 369. Death and character of the ducheſs of Angouleſme, the king's mother, ibid. Francis is very deſirous of uniting the noble duchy of Bretagne for ever to the crown, 370. He ſucceeds in this by the prudent manage-

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ib. She solicits the assistance of Otho, king of Germany, ib. Who marches into Italy, and raising the siege of Canoza, marries Adelaide, ib. Berengarius goes to Germany, and is restored to his kingdom, on condition of paying homage for it to the kings of Germany, 62. Italy greatly harrassed by Berengarius, 63. Otho sends his son Ludolphus into Italy, who defeats Berengarius, ib. Ludolphus dies, and Berengarius continues to oppress his subjects, ib. The Italians again solicit the assistance of Otho, who marches into Italy, and is crowned king there, 64. He marches to Rome and is crowned emperor, ibid. He returns to Pavia, and afterwards marches against Berengarius, 65. The pope makes a secret treaty with Adelbert, to expel the Germans, ib. And solicits the Hungarians to invade Germany, 66. Otho marches to Rome, and assembles a council, ibid. John XII. is deposed, and Leo VIII. chosen, 67. The Romans revolt, and are defeated by Otho, ib. Berengarius, sent prisoner into Germany, where he dies two years afterwards, ib. John XII. returns to Rome, ibid. He dies, and the Romans elect Benedict in his place, 68. Otho returns to Rome, and restores Leo, ibid. Returns to Germany, ib. The Italians revolt and send for Adelbert, who is defeated, and his brother Vido slain, 69. Leo dying, the Romans send to Otho to consult him about a successor, ib. Otho returns to Italy, and punishes the rebels of Lombardy, ib. He marches to Rome, goes with the pope to Ravenna, and his son Otho is crowned emperor, 70. Sends an ambassador to the emperor of Constantinople, demanding Theophania for his son, ib. Otho sends an army into Calabria against the Greeks, 71. The Greeks are defeated, ib. Nicephorus is slain by John Zimisces, who is declared emperor, ib. He concludes an alliance with Otho, and sends Theophania into Italy, who is married to young Otho, ib. The emperor returns to Germany, where he dies, 72. Into what provinces Italy was divided at this time, and what taxes were paid, ibid. Titles of honour at this time also in Italy, ib. Italy falls into great confusion upon the death of the emperor Otho, 73. The Greeks and Saracens invade Italy, 74. Otho II. concludes a peace with the French, and enters Italy with an army, ib. Renders himself odious to the Italians, 75. Defeats the Greeks and Saracens, and recovers Apulia, 76. The Greeks afterwards gain a complete victory over him, ibid. Otho assembles a new army, 77. Goes to Verona, where his son is declared emperor, returns to Rome and dies, ib. Boniface returns from Constantinople, and occasions new disturbances at Rome, ibid. Crescentius expels the pope, ibid. Great commotions in the city of Milan, 78. Crescentius persuades the Romans to revolt, ibid. Otho reduces Milan, where he is crowned, ib. Bruno is elected pope, and takes the name of Gregory V. 79. Otho marches to Rome, and is crowned with his empress, ib. He returns to Germany, and orders the count of Modena to be put to death, ib. The story on this occasion reputed false, 80. The Romans revolt and expel the pope, ib. Otho returns to Italy and reduces Rome, ib. Crescentius is put to death and Gregory restored, ib. Otho does penance at Rome, and returns to Germany, 81. He again enters Italy, defeats the Saracens, and marches to Rome, ib. Publishes several decrees, which irritate the Romans to a revolt, 82. They attack his palace, ib. He assembles his army to punish the Romans, but is poisoned by the widow of Crescentius, ib. Ardoin, marquis of Ivrea, is declared king of Italy, 83. But the archbishop of Milan, with the bishops, acknowlege Henry, duke of Bavaria, who had been chosen emperor of Germany, ib. Henry passes the Alps, defeats Ardoin, and is crowned at Pavia, 84. The inhabitants of Pavia conspire against the emperor, ibid. Henry pardons the conspirators, and returns to Germany, ib. Benedict VIII. is chosen pope, but is obliged to leave Rome, 85. Henry enters Italy with an army, and is crowned emperor by the pope, ib. Ardoin surprises Vercelli, and takes several other cities, 86. The archbishops of Milan and Ravenna recover these cities, and Ardoin retires into a monastery, ib. The Saracens invade Tuscany, but are defeated, ibid. The Normans assist the Apulians against the Greeks, ib. Henry marches into Italy, 87. The duke of Capua is taken prisoner and kept in irons, ib. Henry reduces the greatest part of the cities of Apulia and Calabria, 88. He returns to Germany and dies, ib. Conrad, duke of Franconia, is chosen emperor of Germany, ib. Heribert, archbishop of Milan, declares Conrad king of Italy, 89. The nobles of Italy offer their crown to the king of France, ib. Conrad enters Italy, and is crowned at Monza, 90. He obliges Pavia to surrender, ibid. Goes to Rome and is crowned by the pope, 91. The Italians revolt, 92. Conrad returns to Italy, and sends many of the malecontents prisoners into Germany, ibid. He besieges Milan, but without success,

93. A ſedition in Parma, ibid. Conrad marches againſt Pandulphus, ib. Conſers Capua on Guimar, 94. Dies, ib. Milan is greatly diſturbed by two factions, 95. The Romans oppoſe the counts of Tuſcany, and expel pope Benedict, 96. Three popes at the ſame time have their reſidence at Rome, ib. Henry ſucceſſor to Conrad, who had deſired the crown of Italy, marches thither with an army, ib. Is crowned with the iron crown at Milan, ib. Gregory IV depoſed, 97. Clement II. is conſecrated pope, and the ſame day crowns the emperor and empreſs, ibid. The emperor confirms the Norman conqueſts in Apulia, ib. Clement dies, and the papal ſee is again invaded by Benedict, ib. Damaſus II. is ſent from Germany, but dies ſoon after, 98. Bruno, biſhop of Toul, is elected pope, and takes the name of Leo IX. ib. The Normans invade the territories of the church, ibid. Leo IX. goes into Germany to ſolicit the aſſiſtance of the emperor, 99. Returns to Italy with an army, ib. Engages the Normans, but is entirely defeated and taken priſoner, ib. Is ſet at liberty and returns to Rome, where he dies, 100. Victor II. elected, ibid. The emperor enters Italy with an army, ib. Receives the ſubmiſſion of Godfrey, duke of Lorrain, ibid. Returns to Germany and dies, 101. His ſon Henry is acknowleged emperor, ibid. Frederick, brother to the marquis of Tuſcany, is choſen pope, and takes the name of Stephen IX. 102. Diſputes between the clergy and the inhabitants of Milan, ib. Stephen forms a deſign of conferring the imperial crown on his brother, ibid. He dies at Florence, 193. The Tuſculan faction declare the biſhop of Velitri pope, by the name of Benedict X. ib. The cardinals and biſhops elect the biſhop of Florence, ibid. Benedict is excommunicated, ib. Pope Nicholas makes a treaty with the Normans, ib. Gives the inveſtiture of Capua to Richard; and of Apulia, Calabria, and Sicily, to Robert, 104. Peter Damian goes to Milan, as pope's legate, ib. The archbiſhop and clergy ſwear to reform the abuſes in that church, ibid. Rome in great confuſion on the death of pope Nicholas, 105. The counts of Tuſcany ſupport the rights of the emperor in oppoſition to the cardinals, who elect Anſelm, biſhop of Lucca, who takes the name of Alexander II. ibid. Cadalous, biſhop of Parma, is appointed by the emperor, and takes the name of Honorius II. ib. He goes to Rome with an army, but is defeated by Godfrey, marquis of Tuſcany, ib. He again enters Rome, but is beſieged in the caſtle of St. Angelo, 106. The emperor is taken from his mother, and the adminiſtration committed to the archbiſhops of Cologne and Bremen, ib. Anno, archbiſhop of Cologne, comes into Italy to put an end to the ſchiſm of the church of Rome, ibid. The people of Milan expel the married clergy, 107. Erlembaldus, the prefect, receives letters of excommunication from the pope againſt the archbiſhop, ibid. Vido abdicates the archbiſhoprick, which the emperor confers on Godfrey, ib. Erlembaldus procures the election of Atto, a prieſt, who is confirmed without the authority of the emperor, 108.

Italy, hiſtory of, containing the diſputes between the emperor Henry IV. and the ſee of Rome, xxii. 109. Death of Alexander, and election of Gregory VII. ib. His election confirmed, ib. He ſends cardinal Hugh as legate into Spain, to reform the abuſes in that kingdom, 110. Receives the allegiance of the dukes of Benevento and Capua, ib. Threatens to excommunicate the king of France, ib. Sends his legates into Germany to hold a council, 111. General council at Rome, ibid. Propoſes a cruſade againſt the Saracens, 112. The Normans obliged to quit Campania, ib. The pope offers Sueno, king of Denmark, a province in Italy, ibid. Erlembaldus killed at Milan, 113. Three archbiſhops poſſeſs the ſee of Milan at the ſame time, ib. Gregory claims Hungary and Ruſſia as fiefs of his apoſtolic ſee, ib. A conſpiracy formed againſt the pope, 114. Cincius ſeizes the pope on Chriſtmas-eve, but is forced to deliver him up next day, ib. Gregory cites the emperor to appear before the council at Rome, 115. The emperor aſſembles a council at Worms, and depoſes Gregory, ibid. Gregory excommunicates the emperor, 116. The Lombard biſhops depoſe the pope, ibid. The biſhops and nobles of Germany, repenting what they had done at Worms, deſert the emperor, and ſubmit his cauſe to the determination of the pope, 117. Gregory confers the title of king on the duke of Dalmatia, 118. The emperor arrives in Italy, and is joined by the biſhops and nobles of Lombardy, ib. The pope retires to Canoſa, ib. Penance and abſolution of Henry by the pope, 119. Mathilda gives all her poſſeſſions to the Holy See, ib. The Italians are offended with the emperor, 120. Henry is reconciled to the Italians, ib. He is depoſed by the Germans, who give the empire to Rodolphus, ib. Henry oppoſes Rodolphus, 121. Gregory ſends legates into Britain and

and other kingdoms, ib. Calls a ſynod at Rome, ib. Cardinal Hugh and many biſhops are depoſed, ib. Henry and Rodolphus agree to a ſuſpenſion of arms, 122. The emperor Nicephorus is excommunicated, ibid. Berengarius abjures his hereſy, ibid. Gregory threatens the king of England with excommunication, 123. He excommunicates the king of Poland, 124. Refuſes to allow the Bohemians to worſhip in the vulgar tongue, ib. Sends a crown to Rodolphus, engraved with an arrogant verſe, ib. Is depoſed by a council of thirty biſhops and many nobles of Germany and Italy, 125. Hereupon, to ſtrengthen his party, he is reconciled to the Normans, ib. Rodolphus is defeated and ſlain, ib. The emperor Henry is again excommunicated with his anti-pope Clement, 126. He defeats the troops of Mathilda, ibid. Beſieges Rome, 127. The prince of Capua is excommunicated for eſpouſing the emperor's cauſe, ib. The emperor renews the ſiege of Rome, ibid. The pope retires to the caſtle of St. Angelo, 128. The Normans march to his relief, upon which Henry quits Rome, and retires with his army towards Lombardy, 129. The pope ſet at liberty, retires to Salerno, ib. Whence he writes to William, king of England, to be reconciled to his brother, ibid. The German biſhops excommunicate the anti-pope, 130. Pope Gregory dies at Salerno, ib. Deſiderius, abbot of Caſſino, is choſen pope after him, by the name of Victor III. 131. He goes to Rome, ib. Sends an army into Africa againſt the Saracens, ib. Holds a council at Benevento, the acts of which correſpond with the intentions of his predeceſſor, 132. Retires to Monte Caſſino and dies, ib. Otho, biſhop of Oſtia, is choſen pope after him, and takes the name of Urban II. ibid. The archbiſhop of Toledo is created primate of all Spain, 133. Urban holds a general council at Rome, wherein Henry and his adherents are again excommunicated, ib. Mathilda marries Guelph, the ſon of the duke of Bavaria, ib. The emperor marches into Italy, and is defeated by duke Guelph, 134. By acting afterwards on the defenſive his party gathers ſtrength, and he takes Mantua and other places, ib. Clement is called to Rome by his faction, ib. Eric, king of Denmark, comes to Rome, and is abſolved by Urban, ib. By Henry's withdrawing all his forces beyond the Po, Mathilda recovers all ſhe had loſt on the other ſide of that river, 135. Conrad rebels againſt his father Henry, and is crowned king of Italy, ib. This revolt obliges Henry to retire to the Alps, in expectation of new ſuccours from Germany, ib. And the affairs of Urban being now in a proſperous condition, he returns to Rome, ib. General council at Conſtance held by his legate, 136. Urban goes to Lombardy, and holds a council at Placenza, ib.

Italy, hiſtory of, containing an account of the firſt cruſade, and the depoſition and death of the emperor Henry IV. xxii. 137. Urban holds another council at Clermont, in France, and propoſes a cruſade for the recovery of the Holy Land, ibid. The king of England favours the anti-pope, ibid. The cruſade is preached with great ſucceſs, 138. Peter the Hermit the moſt active promoter of this expedition, ib. Who theſe were that firſt embarked in it, ib. Urban informs the emperor of Conſtantinople of the expedition to the Holy Land, 139. And holds a council at Bari, compoſed of Greek and Latin biſhops, ib. The Croiſes murder the Jews in Germany, 140. The biſhops and cardinals in the intereſt of Clement hold a council at Rome, ibid. Urban recovers the caſtle of St. Angelo and dies, ibid. The Chriſtians take Jeruſalem, ib. Paſcal II. is elected pope, 141. He ſends two legates into France, who excommunicate king Philip, ib. He forbids the king of England to meddle with inveſtitures, 142. A general council held at Rome, ib. An oath of obedience to the Holy See appointed to be taken by all the clergy, ib. The pope ſends a legate to Poland, 143. The emperor is dethroned by his youngeſt ſon Henry, ibid. Who having likewiſe treacherouſly impriſoned him, is thereupon acknowleged as king, 144. The pope's legate refuſes to abſolve the depoſed emperor, ib. He eſcapes from his confinement to Liege and raiſes an army, ibid. Dies ſoon after at Liege, 145.

Italy, hiſtory of, containing the tranſactions of the pope, till the time of the ſecond cruſade, xxii. 145. Pope Paſchal holds a council at Guaſtalla, ib. He goes into France, and holds a council at Troyes, 146. Returns to Italy, and accommodates the difference with the king of England, 147. He threatens the king of Arragon with excommunication for marrying his couſin, ibid. The emperor marches into Italy, ibid. Is crowned king of Italy at Milan, 148. Treaty concluded between the emperor and the pope at Sutri, ibid. Henry enters Rome, and is conducted to the church of St. Peter, 149. The pope refuſes to crown the emperor, upon which he is made priſoner, ib. He conſents to crown

crown the emperor, and to ratify his right of inveſtitures by a bull, 150. The pope's conduct is condemned by the cardinals, who annul the treaty, ib. The pope holds a council at the Lateran, who likewiſe condemn the treaty, 151. The emperor is excommunicated in the councils of Vienne and Jeruſalem, ib. The emperor Alexius offers to receive his crown from the hands of the pope, ib. The pope holds a council at Benevento, 152. The counteſs Mathilda dies, ib. The pope confirms the excommunication of the emperor in the Lateran, 153. The king of England ſends ambaſſadors to the pope, complaining of the rapaciouſneſs of his legate, 154. The emperor arrives at Rome, ib. Is crowned by the biſhop of Braga, ib. Pope Paſchal dies, 155. Cardinal Cajetan is elected pope by the name of Gelaſius II. ibid. Is obliged to leave Rome, ib. Conſecrated at Gaeta, 156. The emperor declares his election void, and appoints Gregory VIII. ib. Gelaſius goes to France, ib. The emperor is excommunicated, 157. Death of Gelaſius, ib. Election of Guido, by the name of Calixtus II. ib. The emperor is excommunicated by the council of Rheims, 158. Conference between the pope and the king of England, ib. Calixtus arrives at Rome, 159. Receives an embaſſy from the king of France, ibid. Burdinus taken priſoner, ib. Calixtus receives an embaſſy from Germany, 160. The affair of inveſtitures determined, ib. The pope gives a commiſſion to the biſhop of Bamberg to convert the Pomeranians, 161. Death of Calixtus II. ib. His memory dear to the Romans, 162. Election of Honorius II. ib. He excommunicates the abbot of Monte Caſſino, ib. William, duke of Apulia, leaves his dukedom to Roger, count of Sicily, 163. Who is excommunicated, 164. Honorius is reconciled to Roger, ib. Death of Honorius, ib. Two popes elected, ib. Innocent, who was firſt elected, quits Rome, 165. Anaclete informs the emperor of his election, ibid. He writes to the king of France, ib. Is acknowleged by Roger, ib. Innocent is received at Paris, 166. He returns to Italy, ib. The emperor crowned at Rome, ib. Enters Italy with an army, 167. Expels Roger from Apulia, ib. Roger enters Italy with an army, 168. Is defeated by Raynulph, ib. Death of Anaclete, ibid. Another anti-pope elected, but is reconciled to the pope, 169. A general council at Rome, ib. Rainulphus, duke of Apulia, dies, 170. Innocent confers on Roger the title of king, ib. Peter Abelard, profeſſor of philoſophy in France, is ſilenced as a heretic, 171. The Tiburtins revolt, but are ſubdued, ib. The Romans appoint a ſenate, ib. Death of Innocent, 172. Is ſucceeded by Celeſtine II. ib. Death of Celeſtine, who is ſucceeded by Lucius II. ib. The Romans aſſume the civil juriſdiction, ib. Lucius is killed, and ſucceeded by Eugenius III. 173. Who quits Rome and retires to Viterbo, ib. The Romans ſue for peace, ib. The pope obliged to quit the city, 174. The emperor and king of France undertake an expedition into the Holy Land, ib.

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Baldwin defeated and taken prisoner by the king of Bulgaria, 225. The Sicilians and Apulians take the oath of allegiance to the pope, 226. Philip, emperor of Germany, sends an embassy to the pope, 227. Disputes between the king of England and the pope, 228. Who lays his kingdom under an interdict, ib. And excommunicates the count of Thoulouse, ib. Otho makes great concessions in favour of the see of Rome, 229. Is crowned by the pope with great solemnity, 230. The king of England is excommunicated, ib. The croises march against the Albigenses, ibid.

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Nicholas dies at Rome, ib. Celestine V. is chosen pope. 306. He abdicates the dignity, ib. Boniface VIII. elected pope, 307. He imprisons Celestine, ib. Concludes a peace between the French and the Arragonians, 308. Publishes a bull for the immunity of the clergy, 309. Deposes two cardinals of the family of Colonna, ib. Publishes a bull in favour of the sacred college, 310. The king of Arragon is crowned king of Corsica and Sardinia at Rome, ib. Boniface refuses to consent to the deposition of the emperor Adolphus, 311. He disapproves of the king of England's invasion of Scotland, ib. The first jubilee held at Rome, 312. The Tartars defeat the Saracens in Palestine, 313. The pope orders a crusade to be preached, ib. He creates Charles of Valois vicar of the empire, 314. Difference between the pope and the king of France, 315. The bishops of Hungary excommunicate the pope, 316. He receives an embassy from France, ib. Confirms the election of the emperor Albert, ib. The king of France is excommunicated, 317. Appeals to a general council, ib. Boniface is seized by the French and Colonna at Anagni, and dies of grief, 318. Benedict XI. is elected pope, ib. His endeavours to reconcile the factions of Italy, 319. Dies at Perugia, ib.

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